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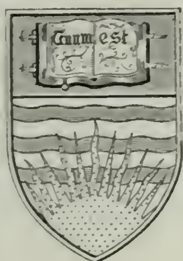


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# THE APPROACH TO LIBRARIANSHIP

SIR JOHN BALLINGER, Kt., C.B.E., M.A.
From a bronze relief by Sir William Goscombe John, R.A.
*(Reproduced by courtesy of the Library Association)*

# THE APPROACH TO LIBRARIANSHIP

A Guide to the Profession and to the Elementary Examination of The Library Association

*by*

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WITH AN INTRODUCTION
*by*
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TO THE PERSONNEL

OF THE

CROYDON PUBLIC LIBRARIES

1913–1934

IN GRATEFUL RECOGNITION OF ALL

IT HAS TAUGHT THE AUTHOR OF

THE APPROACH TO LIBRARIANSHIP

CROYDON, MAY, 1934

# INTRODUCTION

THAT a writer of books should venture to introduce a guide to the profession of librarianship may seem like his cool nerve. In truth, it is that. We know what would happen to the most valuable of writings were it not for the devoted people, mostly unknown, who have the custody of books, and who give a choice and provident circulation to literature: an all but thankless task, not so noticeably honoured, rarely well rewarded. As it is with nearly all of the best social service, the virtue of librarianship is its own reward, in the main. Moreover, what can a writer know of the care of books, when a volume suddenly needed by him, which was on his private shelves yesterday, or perhaps last year, or some time or other, plays hide-and-seek with him for a morning, and wins? Evidently there is much about the care of books he ought to know, but doesn't.

But that is the point. It is possible for me to claim that I may appropriately introduce this book, because I live in Croydon. I may leave it safely on that ground. We have in that town a civic library,

and its keepers, on request, always know where to find what to me is lost, and sometimes is what I did not know existed. To my constant surprise, they will go direct to the knowledge I lack. They seem to think it their duty to give to schoolchildren and authors alike the means to help themselves in that little matter of ignorance.

I suppose a librarian must have some insight into the secret of the widow's cruse, which was replenished miraculously however much was taken from it. His ministration has the nature of a religious rite ; and for that reason, I fancy, he should never enter the temple at all unless aware that he is the keeper of something which, if lost, would leave us all in darkness. Yet he must be one to laugh lightly at the joke of it, when he observes the importance which the public appears to attach to his office. He ought to have a sense of fun to sustain him. But then, it is always in the sanctuary itself, out of hearing of the crowd, that the best laughter arises. It is one way of acknowledging the mystery. Perhaps a librarian should keep in mind, for his chief solace, that the essential offices of the State, without which life would go stagnant, or would lose its integrity and descend to barbarism, are usually the most obscure offices, and rarely in the honours' list.

He would be prepared, I suppose, as a priest should be, to look for no honour or recognition ; and that evidently differentiates him, because we know that such a condition attaching to service would be enough to turn aspirants away from most other professions.

There used to be, I remember, one of a ship's company who was known as Lamps. There was no gold braid about him, but it was impossible to go on unless his task was rightly performed. He was indispensable ; or so it was thought. Oddly enough, a time seems to have come in civilisation when quite a large number of people, whole nations in fact, seem determined to do without the customary lights of society ; to put them out ; to douse knowledge and learning obtained by so much ardour and endurance, and to live without it ; or at least by the use of no more of it than satisfies popular fallacy and gives countenance to bigots. Books in many cities of Europe are not being kept, but burned. A jealous hatred of learning, always latent in any community, for it is well known to some people that where there is light there is freedom, is most curiously showing its ancient and ugly face in this very age of science. What are we to do about it ? That is a question which librarians may have to face. There, we see,

is a possible test of the quality of their devotion to literature and knowledge. But the fact that it may be applied—has been applied in some civilised countries—is certainly a testimony to the importance of their charge.

H. M. Tomlinson

# PREFACE

EXCEPT for an attempt to explain some things that are not dealt with in other books, or, if they are, not with sufficient simplicity, this book is not primarily intended to be a textbook in the ordinary sense. If it were only that, its publication would be quite unjustified, because such books are already available for every stage of the professional examinations. In fact, the beginner is likely to be confused by their number. Whereas we once had Brown's *Manual of Library Economy*, and were grateful to the man who gave it us, we now have besides, many general textbooks, and some quite special ones.

It is designed to fulfil two objects. One is to provide the increasingly large number of parents who contemplate librarianship as a career for their children with a clearer conception of what librarianship is and of what it involves, and so enable them to judge whether it seems to offer a suitable profession. The other is to present that same information to first-year library assistants, and then to lay down such guidance in their studies as will enable them to set their feet on the first rung of the library ladder.

It is hoped that it may also serve to inculcate something of the ideals of librarianship, which we are in danger of losing in these days, when the economic

aspect seems to overshadow the higher things that have been always associated with our profession. While we would not overlook the truth that "the labourer is worthy of his hire," we may also do well to recall that whoever "claims to be zealous of truth, of happiness, of wisdom or knowledge . . . must needs become a lover of books."

The book is the result of many years' experience as a librarian, a teacher and an examiner, during which the author has had dealings with large numbers of young people of widely differing types who have entered the profession, occasionally from deliberate choice, but often merely because the opportunity of doing so has presented itself, sometimes with happy results, but not infrequently resulting in disappointment and unsatisfactory results, both to themselves and their work.

If, then, it succeeds in helping parents and guardians to get some clearer notion of what librarianship is, and if it likewise helps young people in the first years of their work and study, the book will have served its purpose.

I acknowledge with thanks the help that I have received from several of my colleagues, and especially from my chief, Mr. W. C. Berwick Sayers, who is, in a sense, responsible for the book, in that it was he who suggested that it might be usefully written. Its plan, however, and therefore its shortcomings, are mine alone.

Mr. H. M. Tomlinson needs no introduction. On several occasions he has given expression to his keen interest in libraries and all they stand for. That he should have given further evidence of the close

association that exists between Letters and Libraries, by writing the Introduction to this volume, is an honour shared alike by the author and by all who aspire to practise librarianship.

HENRY A. SHARP

CROYDON,
*May*, 1934.

## FRONTISPIECE

THE portrait of Sir John Ballinger, 1860-1933, is chosen as our frontispiece because he represents a most successful librarian, who entered Cardiff Public Library as a boy of fifteen, and by dint of self-education, indomitable energy, and ability, became successively librarian of Doncaster and Cardiff. His work there was so good that he was chosen in 1909 to direct the great new National Library of Wales, and, before his retirement in 1930, he had made it world-famous. The University of Wales gave him its honorary degree, the Library Association made him President in 1922, and the nation gave him his C.B.E. in 1920, and his knighthood in 1930.

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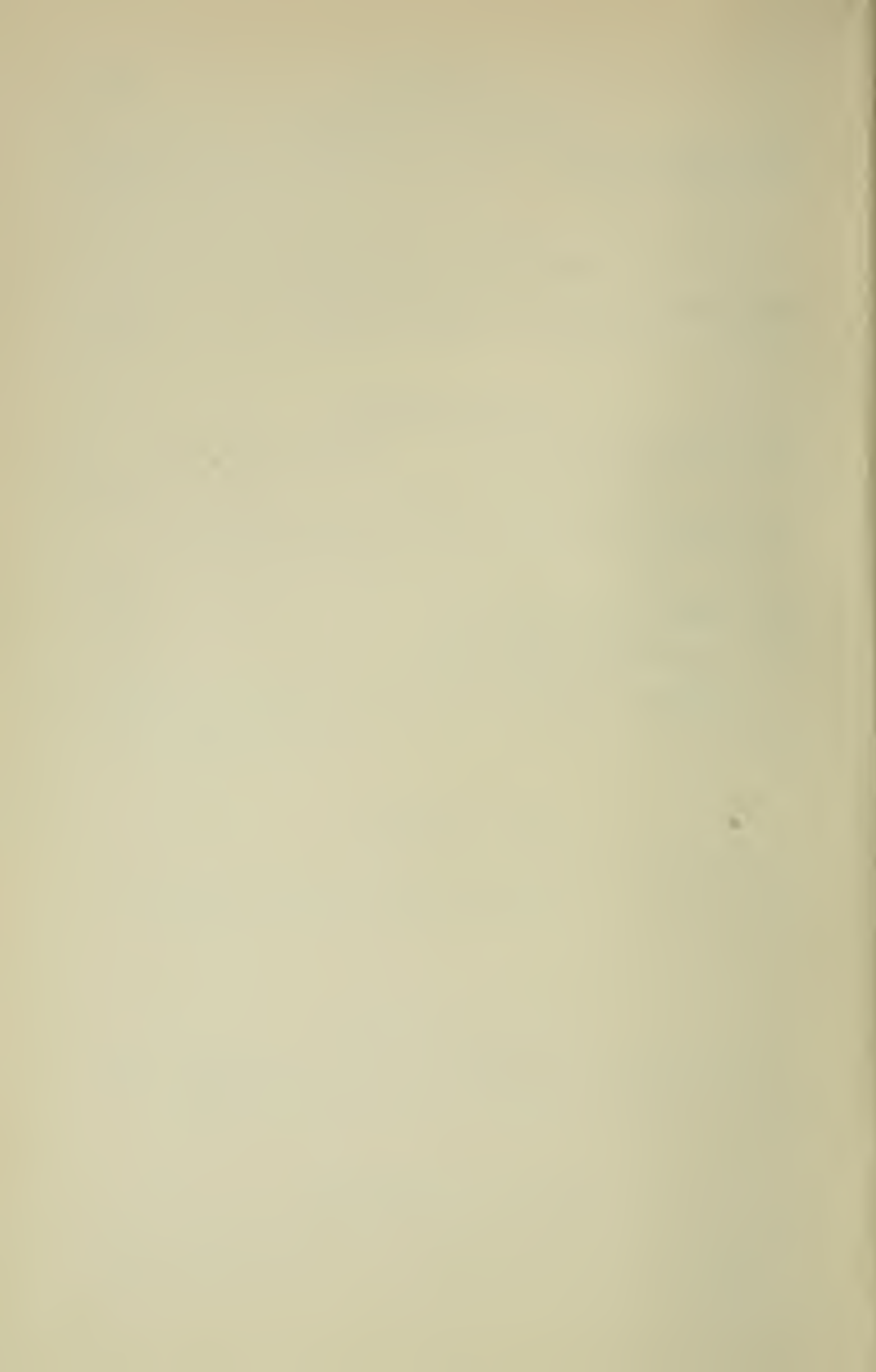

# PART ONE

# THE APPROACH TO LIBRARIANSHIP

## CHAPTER ONE

### LIBRARIANSHIP: WHAT IT IS AND WHAT IT IS NOT

INTENDED as this book is, in part for parents and others who have the responsibility of deciding whether librarianship is likely to prove a suitable career for someone who is ready to be launched into what is vaguely called "business," and in its entirety for the one who is being so launched, it is desirable that both parties shall have some clear conception of what librarianship is, as well as of what it is not.

The definitions of a librarian given in the *Oxford Dictionary* are interesting. He is (1) a scribe or a copyist, (2) the keeper or custodian of a library, in which connexion we are told that the word has supplanted the older word "library-keeper," and (3) a dealer in books.

In earlier days, the second of these definitions, which describes a librarian as the keeper or custodian, was of greater importance than it is to-day, though

even now, that side of his work is not to be underestimated. In those days, books were rare, costly, and used almost exclusively by scholars, who required little in the way of guidance from the librarian, as they knew exactly what they wanted, added to which, the number of books on any one subject was distinctly limited.

But to-day, while the general scholar is still with us, and in greater numbers, there is also the specialist, and what is called the man in the street, to be catered for. Often, these are in quest of knowledge, but sometimes they are just seeking relaxation after their day's work in the modern world of commerce and industry. A fundamental difference between the erstwhile guardian of a library and his modern prototype is therefore apparent.

While it is still the first duty of a librarian to guard his books, he is even more concerned to devise means by which they will be used to the widest and best advantage. By a variety of methods, vaguely known as publicity, he must endeavour to secure contacts between book and reader, and not merely contacts, but right contacts. We might, indeed, add another definition of the modern librarian. He is, besides, an exploiter of books, which are among the first essentials of modern civilisation ; or, as Professor Pierce Butler, of the Graduate Library School at the University of Chicago says in the opening sentence of his *Introduction to Library Science*, "the library has been created by actual necessities in modern civilisation. It is now a necessary unit in the social fabric."

This being so, the task of the modern librarian, as

entrants to the library service will soon learn, must be a pretty comprehensive one, involving, besides a natural liking for, and a wide knowledge of, books old and new, an intelligent interest in the world of yesterday, to-day, and even of to-morrow, a large measure of tact and common-sense, and an acquaintance with the elements of business organisation. Librarianship is, in fact, more liberal in its outlook, more inclusive in its scope than any other profession known to us, except possibly journalism.

Let us examine this a little more closely. Over a period of years, a librarian sees literally hundreds of applications from young people desirous of obtaining posts as assistants in libraries. In nearly every case, the applicant is careful to state that he or she is fond of books, and often claims to have read almost every book that figures in any standard English literary history. On the surface, this appears to be as it should. Librarianship is no career for anyone who is not fond of books, and who does not aspire to read at some time all the masterpieces, though he can never fully accomplish his desire. But underlying the desire to impress a committee or a librarian with this fondness for books, there is often a firm idea that the reading of books is the main part of a librarian's work. So it is, but as will be quickly learned, most, if not all of it, must be done in what is ordinarily regarded as "off-time." In the course of his everyday work, the assistant will learn a lot *about* books, what they contain, and how to use them, but he will not read them.

It would be difficult to name a profession about which the majority of ordinary, and even cultured,

people have greater misconceptions than they have about librarianship. A man may be a teacher, a doctor, a lawyer, a bank clerk, an accountant, or almost anything else, and his friends will have a more or less clear idea of the direction in which his work lies. But every librarian can recall occasions when he has been asked in an apologetic way: "What *is* a librarian?" "What does a librarian *do*?" In their attempts to avoid the predicament in which they might otherwise find themselves, some librarians and library assistants call themselves municipal officers or local government officials. Actually, such condescension on their part is quite unnecessary, the office of librarian being as old and dignified as most professions that can be mentioned. If it loses any of that dignity, the fault lies at the door of the holder of the office, and not at that of the profession. There have been librarians since the days of the earliest civilisations.

Most people who have any sort of conception of what a librarian is have probably got it from their use of a circulating library, and so they regard a librarian as just a person who hands out modern books, receives them back again, and spends the time between the transactions in reading the more attractive additions to the shelves.

This, counter work as we call it, *is* a librarian's job, and an important part of it, but a very infinitesimal part. The average person knows little or nothing of the amount of work that has to be done before the giving out of a book is possible under even decently efficient business conditions.

Reviews have to be read and weighed, wise and

yet representative selection has to be made from the fifteen thousand or more books published annually, the books have to be ordered, checked, catalogued, classified, and passed through a number of other processes before they get to the stage at which they may be given out.

In addition to those processes, some of which are highly skilled tasks, and not likely to fall to the lot of the first-year library assistant, such menial ones as dusting, tidying shelves, putting books back into their correct places, making good the bad misplacements effected by a somewhat thoughtless public, and a host of other things that convey nothing to outsiders, and but little to those who are as yet beginners, have to be done regularly and methodically.

But even these form only a small proportion of the many-sided activities of a modern librarian, chief among which must be always counted a knowledge of books. The would-be librarian must be thoroughly grounded in the history of English literature, by which is meant a good deal more than knowing the bare fact that Shakespeare was born in 1564 and died in 1616, that he wrote such plays as *A Midsummer Night's Dream* and *Julius Cæsar*, or that Charles Dickens wrote a book called *David Copperfield*.

Librarianship is no career for people who are not good enough for the business world. The best librarians we have known would have made successful business men, and it is becoming more and more apparent that the successful librarian of the future will be he—or she—who is a good organiser and an

efficient administrator. This, at any rate, is true of those branches of librarianship that have direct contact with the public, although we recognise that there are priceless collections of books, the custodians of which must still act rather on the lines of the keeper than of the purveyor. Nor is it one for those who only desire a genteel occupation, but lack the ability to qualify for the better-known professions such as the church, medicine, chemistry, or the law. Finally, it is no longer to be regarded as a profession into which people either just fall, or are placed, because they are not good enough for anything else.

We have suffered too much in the past through these causes. Nowadays, and it will be still more so as time goes on, librarianship is a profession to be taken up as a career of choice, and one that demands, besides particular initial educational qualifications and a natural aptitude, definite technical training along prescribed lines.

Education alone, no matter to what lengths it may have been carried, does not in itself make a good modern librarian. Neither, on the other hand, does technical training. But a combination of education, training, experience, and aptitude for the work may do so. In short, librarianship is a profession for people of really good education, wide interests, organising and administrative ability, personality, and a capacity for helping the varying types of people who come to a library.

It seems that we cannot do better than end this chapter by quoting once more from Professor Butler's book, which, incidentally, is no book for beginners, but one that should be ear-marked for

later reading. This is his view of a librarian's duty. "The librarian's duty is not to entice men, against their wills if it need be, to convert themselves to his way of thinking. He is merely society's custodian of its cultural archives. The responsibility which he assumes with his office is to exploit those archives for communal advantage to the utmost extent of his ability. Therefore, a major phase of the library's service to any individual reader will be to assist him to an effective method for achieving his own private purpose, so long as this is not anti-social, and to safeguard him from losing his labour in activities which are futile with reference to his own immediate desire. For all this there must be a sympathetic understanding of that individual's motive and mental ability. Effective librarianship is largely a matter of accurate psychological diagnosis.

"Of much the same fashion is the librarian's office with respect to the books in his custody. His effectiveness in exploiting them for communal benefit will depend on his knowledge of what they are. Yet it is clearly impossible for any individual to learn of the contents of very many works by reading them through. In the course of a year the most assiduous reader can seldom peruse more than two hundred volumes. A whole life-time at this rate will be insufficient to establish a personal acquaintance with ten thousand books. Against this the world's literature has been computed to embrace some eight and a half million separate writings. The librarian, in his professional capacity, must endeavour to learn about books rather than to know them directly."

# CHAPTER TWO

## KINDS OF LIBRARY WORK

The library service may be divided, roughly, into two main groups, public and private, both of which have rather wide, and to a certain extent, overlapping, connotations. The first includes libraries provided and maintained by the state, public libraries in the accepted sense, maintained under the Public Libraries Acts, urban or county, while in the second group may be placed university, college and society libraries, special libraries and information bureaux, some endowed libraries, and those of private collectors.

At this point, attention may be drawn to a useful pamphlet issued by the Ministry of Labour, in its *Choice of careers series*, entitled "Librarianship." Its object is "to afford simple and authoritative information to parents, teachers, and all concerned in advising boys and girls from public secondary schools on the choice of a suitable career." It contains much information germane to this and other chapters.

Taking the urban municipal library service first. This is provided and maintained by such authorities as metropolitan and other boroughs, urban district councils and some rural district councils, as distinct

from county councils, under a series of Public Libraries Acts passed at intervals between the years 1850 and 1919. Its work is carried on from one or more library buildings, according to the size of the district to be served. The number of such buildings in a library system ranges from 1 to as many as 32, and the staff from 4 or 5 to as many as 200.

The grading of the staff employed is similarly affected. Single library systems may comprise a librarian, a chief assistant, one or more senior assistants, and some juniors, while one with branches may possess a chief librarian, a deputy librarian, individual librarians-in-charge of the reference, lending, children's and branch libraries, senior assistants, and still more juniors. Very large systems may even include such special officers as a superintendent of branches, a chief cataloguer and classifier with a separate staff, a commercial or technical librarian, and a librarian-in-charge of special collections.

It would seem at first sight that it must be a great advantage for a beginner to obtain a post in a large library system, but this does not necessarily follow. Indeed, for an all-round grounding in the elements of library administration, an assistant in a small system is likely to learn a good deal more than his colleague in a large one, who may, perhaps, pass the whole of his first year in a single department. The departments to be found in an average public library, and the elements of their administration are dealt with in chapter 14.

What were at first called rural libraries, but are now known as county libraries, were made possible

in 1919 by a clause in the Act of 1919, which gave county councils the power to provide a library service for those parts of the county falling within the administration of the council, and not provided with a municipal library service. It also allowed certain authorities to hand over the powers vested in them under the Public Libraries Acts to the county council under certain arrangements. This concession has proved a boon to some very small authorities who had provided a library, or had been provided with one, but who found it next to impossible to maintain it in a state of efficiency, on account of the small yield of the library rate.

The hub of a county library service is a headquarters building, usually situated in the county town. Here is housed the county librarian and the staff, which, by the way, is often regrettably small, although some of the more progressive counties have developed their systems to a high state of efficiency, with adequate and properly remunerated staffs. From the headquarters building consignments of books are sent from time to time to the towns and villages participating in the scheme. As it would be impracticable to maintain paid librarians in every town and village so served, the county library depends to a great extent on voluntary help from teachers and social workers. In some of the larger towns, small branch libraries are maintained, each under the charge of a trained assistant. This is made possible by the levying of an extra, or "differential" rate on the town for which such additional library service is provided.

In urban and county library services alike, both

men and women are employed, in some instances only men, but more often a combination of both, with a tendency for the number of women to increase, although, without discussing its pros and cons, the more senior posts are often filled by men. But there are signs that gradually, perhaps very gradually, this type of librarianship is becoming more and more a woman's profession, as indeed it has been for a long while in America. But many of the higher positions will doubtless be filled by men for many years to come.

Vacancies for chief and deputy librarians, for librarians-in-charge, often for senior assistants, and for county librarians and their senior assistants, are usually advertised in *The Municipal Journal*, unless they are to be filled by staff promotions, though, even then, the posts are sometimes advertised. Junior positions are filled in several ways; by advertisements in local newspapers, by circularising the secondary schools in the district, from the standing file of interim applications which every librarian keeps, and sometimes by a combination of all three methods. Judging by the number of girls known to apply for posts, the potential supply is considerably in excess of the immediate requirements, with the result that a librarian usually has a wide field from which to make his choice.

With regard to the national or state libraries, some of which are maintained as a part of the civil service, these number more than is usually thought. They include, first and foremost, the British Museum, as well as such widely known libraries as those of the British Record Office, the Science Library at Soutl

Kensington, the Victoria and Albert Museum, the Patent Office, the National Library of Wales at Aberystwyth, of Scotland at Edinburgh, and of Ireland at Dublin, the Parliamentary libraries, and those provided for the use of the principal government departments, like the Board of Education, the Ministry of Agriculture, the War Office, the Admiralty, and others. In most of these, both men and women are eligible for appointment.

Of the other kinds of libraries that exist, many may be described as being of a semi-public nature, in that, except for the rapidly decreasing number of private libraries maintained in the great houses of the land, like that of the Earl of Crawford at Haigh Hall, there are comparatively few that are not available to genuine research workers. The majority of historic private libraries of former days have been either dispersed, or absorbed into state and semi-state libraries.

All the great universities of the country have large and valuable libraries, some of which are so far recognised by the state as to benefit under the copyright acts, which entitle them to receive a copy of every book published in Great Britain. These libraries, by the way, are the British Museum, the Bodleian Library at Oxford, Cambridge University, the National Libraries of Ireland, Scotland, and Wales.

Closely allied to the state and university libraries, in that they are provided for purposes of definite study and research, are those special libraries maintained by societies and institutions up and down the country, among which may be numbered such

well-known examples as those of the Royal Society, the Royal Geographical Society, the Chemical Society, the Inns of Court, etc.

Since the European War, there has grown up a new type of library, rendered necessary by the desire to re-establish and consolidate the country's position in world trade and commerce. These are known usually as Special Libraries and Information Bureaux. Roughly, they are divisible into two groups: (1) those maintained by groups of firms, like that of the Research Association of British Rubber and Tyre Manufacturers, and (2) by individual firms like Metropolitan-Vickers Electrical Co., Ltd., and others. These libraries consist partly of books on those subjects falling within the scope of the firm's interests, but the most important part of their work lies in the collection and dissemination of current information such as is to be found in periodicals and similar fugitive material giving up to the minute information. Their objects and activities are co-ordinated by the Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux, colloquially known as ASLIB.

Mr. Arthur F. Ridley, librarian of the British Non-Ferrous Metals Research Association, contributed a paper to the Sixth Conference of the Association in 1929 on "Suggestions on the Training of Special Librarians," in which he emphasised the importance in special library work of a specially trained staff, in "(1) a knowledge of the subject or subjects covered by the field which the special library serves, and (2) a knowledge of library technique, and the acquisition, recording, and distribution of information." The

fundamentals of library science are the same both for the general and the special library, but there has been expressed a need for special training for those working in special libraries, which has resulted in the provision of alternative courses at the School of Librarianship for those who propose to take up this form of library work."

Yet other libraries exist as the result of bequests by public-spirited individuals, like the John Rylands' and Humphrey Chetham's Libraries at Manchester, and Dr. Williams' Library in London.

Such, briefly, are the principal kinds of recognised service available for people who contemplate librarianship as a career. It will be noticed that nothing has been said about commercially run circulating libraries, some of which occupy a great part in the national life, and in which many people with a wide knowledge of current literature are employed. No disparagement is intended, but this branch of the library service is regarded, perhaps wrongly, as an adjunct to the bookselling trade rather than to organised librarianship as we deal with it in this book. Moreover, and whether rightly or wrongly is again discussable, service in such libraries is not recognised as "service in an approved library," for the purpose of the Library Association's Diploma.

Some reference may be made here to the question of specialising in particular branches of library work, though as a matter of fact, British library authorities and librarians have not given enough attention to this. Undoubtedly, many people are definitely better at one kind of work than they are at another,

and every facility should be given for developing a flair that any of them may show, as far as may be possible without detriment to the general service. My own experience is that most beginners have an idea that they would like to be reference assistants, though it is strongly suspected that this is often prompted by the notion that reference assistants have an easier time than those in the lending department. Of a large number of women assistants, a few think they would make good children's librarians, and fewer still that they could become classifiers and cataloguers. Some again, by nature, might develop into excellent county librarians. Actually, only time can tell to what extent these early impressions are likely to be borne out.

If, after having had a good general grounding in the common elements of library administration, the idea still persists, and there are good grounds for believing that one has those peculiar qualities that make a good cataloguer, reference assistant, or children's librarian, that person will be wise to make an attempt to get training and experience in the work. So far, as has been said, all too little has been done in this country to encourage specialisation, though there are signs that it is beginning to receive attention, especially in such things as reference and children's work. Unfortunately, it is at present impossible to develop the idea in any but the larger library systems. As far as women are concerned, there will, in the future, be room for many more children's librarians, who must be people possessing aptitude for the work and training in its various phases, which include a capacity for organising, a

wide knowledge of children's literature old and new, more than average personality, ability to talk or tell stories to children, to enlist the interest of a large number of people, including school teachers and others, in the work, to say nothing of possessing endless patience, good-humour, and tact.

With regard to specialisation in other branches of library work, it is difficult to write with any definiteness. The qualities that go towards the making of the good classifier and cataloguer have been touched upon in chapter 12, and to which may be added the possession of a large measure of what is vaguely called "general knowledge," not only of people and things of past ages, but more especially of the present day, about which many books are published that have to be classified at their proper heads, catalogued, and in many cases annotated. It often falls to the lot of the cataloguer to prepare reading lists and select bibliographies, to do which he must have some sound knowledge of the outstanding books on many subjects. A large share of preliminary book-selection comes within the scope of his duties, making it necessary that he shall possess the ability to discern and discriminate between the thousands of books that present themselves for inclusion in, what must be, at the best, very limited stocks.

As to reference library work, this demands an acquisitive as well as an inquisitive mind, a flair for ferreting things out, not merely from books, but from enquirers, who, in many cases, are either loth or at a loss to make clear precisely what information they really want. The reference assistant must likewise keep himself abreast of current events, and

above all, know what books and other sources of information to use, and how to use them promptly and efficiently.

The foregoing are only indications of phases of library work that may be specialised in if the opportunity occurs and if a person is really fitted for some special branch. But it must be repeated that opportunities for specialisation are comparatively rare, and in any case, the beginner will be wise to spend his earlier years in getting as wide a knowledge of library work as possible, leaving specialisation until later.

# CHAPTER THREE

## THE MAKING OF A GOOD LIBRARIAN

In an address at a summer school of librarians and assistants, Mr. L. Stanley Jast, who for many years was one of the outstanding personalities in public librarianship, said that " The perfect librarian does not exist, never has existed, and assuredly never will exist. But good librarians do, and better librarians may." That at any rate is at once comforting and hopeful.

Before enumerating some of the qualities that contribute to the making of, at least, a good library assistant, it must be reiterated that he is neither the one who has the widest knowledge of the facts of English literature, nor he with an equally extensive knowledge of what is vaguely called library technique. There is a danger of the first developing into a boor and the second into an automaton. The good library assistant is one in whom is an ideal blending of a knowledge of literature, sufficient technique to enable him to do his job efficiently and to the better exploitation of the books under his care, and a lot of other things besides, including a catholic mind, and a very large modicum of what is so erroneously called " common " sense. Wilma Bennett[1] sums it

[1] In *The Student Library Assistant* (New York: H. W. Wilson Co.).

all up when she says he must be "reliable, efficient, resourceful, enthusiastic, patient and quiet (and still remain human)."

It is assumed that he has at least the basis of a good general education, or he would not have embarked on such a career. There is no need further to labour this point. He must have a knowledge of, and a love for, books. That, equally, is a commonplace, though it needs more insistence than might be supposed.

If the beginner happens to be engaged in a branch of the library service that brings him into regular contact with the public, he must be tactful, courteous, and cheerful in all his dealings, persevering and adaptable, he must be precise and accurate in the making of the many records that a library has to keep; neglect in this respect brings a library into disrepute sooner than anything else. He must be quick without being slipshod, and ready to be helpful to readers without appearing to be officious. Numbers of readers definitely resent being "helped," lest it should be misinterpreted as a confession of ignorance on their part. He must be neat and clean in his personal appearance, without any suggestion of being overdressed. He must be of an even temper and have a keen sense of humour; few people need both more than library assistants do; he must always control the first and conceal the second. Anyone will be foolish who takes up librarianship with an idea of making money; money is not "made" out of the distribution of books through libraries. Compared with many business men, even librarians in important posts are poorly paid, and

we have yet to hear of one who became rich. But there are, at any rate to some of us, compensating advantages, especially in these days when material things so often take precedence over the things of the mind.

To the authority who employs him, to his chief, and to his colleagues, he must preserve an unswerving loyalty, and carry out the library policy of the first to the best of his ability. Every assistant worth his salt has ideas of his own as to how a library might be administered better than it is. As a rule, there are ways and means of making these ideas known, and sometimes they may be adopted, but sometimes not. One cannot fail to admire the assistant who thinks there is no library like his own ; legitimate pride commands respect. He should have boundless enthusiasm for his job, combined with self-possession in cases of emergency, and dignity that is not stilted.

Besides all these and many other desirable qualities that help to make the good library assistant, others may be cited as being definitely bad ones. A few are, unfortunately, inherent and incapable of eradication, but most of them will yield to treatment if taken in hand rigorously from the very beginning. In the first place, let it be made perfectly clear that the average junior assistant's life is a pretty hectic one. He does not sit at a desk all day reading, or even handling, books. A good deal of his time is necessarily spent on his feet ; he has to do a lot of fetching and carrying, he is very fully engaged in attending to the needs of the public at certain times of the day, especially in the evenings ; his meal-times are often irregular, and his working day may

be spread over twelve hours, in between, or after which, he must spend some time at his professional studies. This presents a somewhat gloomy and uninviting picture, but it is perfectly true, and for this reason alone, people who are not reasonably fit, or who have any physical infirmity, should not enter the profession, or at any rate the public library branch of it. In this connexion, it may be mentioned that it is usual for a selected candidate to be required to pass a medical examination. Hearing and eyesight should be good. If there is any defect in the second, it should be properly rectified.

Apart from serious physical handicaps, most other faults may be remedied. Such for example as a bad memory, which can be quickly cured, slovenliness of person and eccentricities in dress, often reflected in lack of method in one's work. The manner of dress assumed by some assistants to-day, especially male ones, sometimes leaves much to be desired.

Inability or unwillingness to assume a proper share of responsibility is another common fault, only equalled by the possession of a gross egotism, which fault, however, is generally eradicated by one's colleagues. Lack of executive ability and of unresponsiveness to discipline, and later of ability to secure it from others, are faults to be conquered by anyone who hopes to gain a responsible position. Tendencies to gossip with readers are to be repressed, though this does not preclude the cultivation of quite amicable relationships. This is easier said than done, especially in small libraries, where nearly all the readers are known personally to the staff, and in certain parts of England where people are alleged

to be very much more intimate with each other than they are in other parts.

No doubt a good deal of what has been said in this chapter will be regarded as what is commonly called balderdash. But for those who think we are being too idealistic, there are, besides, plenty of more practical acquisitions necessary towards the making of this perfect library assistant. He must be punctual, especially if he works in a public library, where as a rule his colleague cannot go off duty until his relief comes on. Five minutes before time should become a regular habit. It is characteristic of the present age that nobody works longer than is absolutely necessary, and while one would not for a moment urge that library assistants should work longer than anyone else, the assistant who expects that, because he stays ten minutes after his scheduled hour, he must be allowed ten minutes off somewhere else, is to be looked at askance, and his chances of making good are not great. Do not let this be misunderstood. If your work is done, get away from it, and don't try to curry favour with your immediate superior by seeking to impress him with your keen devotion to duty. If he is experienced, he will discriminate between the occasions on which you stay to finish off your job and those when you are just trying to make a good impression.

In the execution of duties, he must be methodical and systematic, able to keep several jobs going simultaneously, and with some sense of responsibility towards his profession in general and his library in particular. There is an idea among juniors that responsibility is a virtue reserved for those in senior

positions, which is quite wrong. Except indirectly, the impression that the public gets of its library service and of the library profession, is got from the junior staff, who have the first and closest contact with them. If an assistant is pleasing in manner, able and willing to offer elementary guidance without being pressing, accurate in the making of his records, and businesslike in all his movements, appreciation of the library service is more likely to be enhanced than if every assistant knows Latin or Greek and has no knowledge of the elements of business.

On the severely practical side, there is a need for people who have sufficient knowledge of figures to be able to cast up a day's or a week's issue, to calculate the daily average, the fiction percentage, and suchlike things that too many assistants are quite unable to do. Knowledge of typewriting and shorthand never come amiss. The first is likely to be wanted at any time, and if the second is not practised in taking down correspondence, there are numerous occasions when ability to make rapid notes must be useful. Foreign languages are invaluable ; in fact, a knowledge of two of them is required by the Library Association as a condition for the Diploma.

Everything that has been said in this chapter so far is of quite general application. But there is room, too, for individuality besides. It must not be forgotten that what may constitute a good librarian in one kind of library need not necessarily do so in another. Mr. Jast admirably exemplifies this by citing five widely differing types of libraries : the Laurentian library, a research department of a manufacturing firm, a commercial subscription

library, a small town library, and a great city library. As he shows, beyond the fact that all the librarians are concerned with books in one way or another, the differences in their essential qualities are widely different. Any assistant who has a bent in any direction germane to librarianship should be encouraged to develop it. A knowledge of music and musical literature, of modern economics, an interest in poetry or the drama, a share in social work, and many other things, are all good for the assistant himself and for the library service. They develop his own cultural life, and assistants so qualified provide a panel of more or less specialised knowledge. But a word of warning may not be out of place. The beginner's first concern should be to fit himself for his job and to ensure his future position. The day's work must be done efficiently, a certain amount of cultural reading and acquaintance with modern literature must be got in, some recreation, and some professional study. A pretty full day, especially if much time has to be spent in travelling to and fro. For these reasons, the beginner will be wise if he subordinates his wider interests for the time being. Women who have—in addition—artistic tastes, should likewise develop them by practising such things as poster and display work.

## CHAPTER FOUR

# GENERAL AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

"THE two main requirements for a librarian are a liberal education and technical training. In a certain limited sense the latter is the more indispensable, since no one can conduct the business of a library without some acquaintance with the technique of classification, cataloguing, the care of books, and other library routine. But in a wider sense it is the other qualification that is the more essential. Any man or woman with a good general education can, if the necessary opportunity be given, acquire a knowledge of library technique ; but the completest knowledge of technique will not qualify a member of a library staff for the highest posts in the profession. For the welfare of the library service it is essential to recognise that librarianship is a learned profession." Such was the view expressed in the *Report on Public Libraries in England and Wales,* presented to Parliament in 1927, and the position does not appear to have changed.

Since then, the questions of general and professional education have received much attention, and both are still in a certain state of flux. But broad principles have been laid down, and the position is clarified to that extent. The fundamental one is

that nobody may enter for the professional examinations without first having passed a public examination of a standard not lower than General Schools, though full matriculation is better, and will, no doubt, in time be insisted upon. In view of this, it must be plain that, even in the unlikely event of a library authority appointing to a position anybody not so qualified, there can be no possible future in librarianship without this initial qualification. It can, indeed, become nothing more than a blind alley occupation, leading ultimately to disillusionment and disappointment. Everything, therefore, that is said assumes that this fence has been cleared.

But anyone who is considering librarianship as a career should regard even matriculation as a minimum educational attainment, and not the maximum one as it used to be. The tendency to-day is definitely on the side of raising the standard, and if a prophecy may be hazarded, it is that within, say, the next ten years, a large number of senior posts will go to graduates. Already librarianship is beginning to be looked upon as a profession not unworthy of the consideration of men and women who have passed to this fuller stage. At the moment, the number of graduates in the public library branch of the service is not large, but it is increasing steadily. The Report of the Director of the School of Librarianship for 1932–1933 records that from January to November 1933, 31 graduate members of the School received appointments or promotion. In view of these tendencies, those who are in a position to do so would do well to consider very seriously whether it may not be advisable to go the whole gamut of

formal education. Graduation is already an essential qualification for entry to the higher branches of the state library service and to many society and institutional libraries.

But one or two things need saying in this connexion. At the moment, and for the next few years, this question of higher education and of academic qualifications is going to be very much to the fore, and there is even likely to be a certain amount of feeling about it. Non-graduates naturally look askance at the advent of graduates, and the graduates are often inclined to undervalue the practical worth of the non-graduates. But transitional periods invariably produce a similar distortion of the true position, which however, cannot arrest or change the trend of affairs.

In its written evidence to the Departmental Committee on Qualifications, Recruitment, etc., of Local Government Officers, the Library Association expresses the view "that there is both room and need for university graduates on the staffs of the larger public library services. Responsible positions should not be reserved for them; they should compete freely with younger entrants when seeking promotion." A well-known American librarian, Dr. Charles C. Williamson, writing in his book, *Training for Library Service*, says, "It is far easier for an intelligent educated person interested in books and people to make a success of library work than it is for one having all the technique the library school can give him, but lacking in general intellectual and cultural background."

One thing is certain. The position to-day is

definitely changed from that which prevailed even a few years ago. Then, assistants began work with less education than now, on to which was grafted a certain amount of technical training, with, at the same time, a development of general education. Nowadays, the good general education must come first, and the rest follow.

Our own view is that this problem is going to settle itself by the establishment of two distinct grades of library workers, one definitely professional, and the other more or less clerical, or semi-professional, as indeed is already the case in the British Museum and many similar libraries. But it does not follow that all of the first grade will be graduates, or all of the second, non-graduates. Indeed, it is by no means firmly established that the raising of the educational standard has given the public a proportionately better library service, which is only another way of saying that much learning does not in itself make a good modern librarian, but learning plus the essential other things may. It is just here that the graduate is sometimes apt to err. He must not think that a degree plus an academic year at a library school makes him, *ipso facto*, a qualified librarian. Commonsense should tell him that it cannot be so. At the best he can be only qualified to take an intermediate position, and his future must depend on his ability to develop his technique and to compete with his colleagues, whose university has been the school of experience.

Leaving aside the question of graduate or non-graduate, it cannot be too strongly emphasised that, although the educational attainments of library

assistants are alleged to be higher than they were twenty or so years ago, that everyone must have passed a recognised educational examination, there is a strong feeling among examiners and teachers of professional subjects that the general education of the library assistant leaves much to be desired, and examiners quite rightly refuse to pass those candidates who show clearly that they are, at best, only half-educated. What the solution is going to be it is difficult to say, except that full matriculation seems to be indicated.

Good general education and good professional education, then, are two distinct things, though, nevertheless, perfect counterparts ; neither can ever be complete without the other. We have tried to show that at least a measure of the first is assured nowadays. But nobody can hope to proceed far in modern librarianship who does not undergo a course of professional education of some sort, the ultimate goal of which must be, either the Diploma awarded by the Library Association or by the University of London through its School of Librarianship.

Two alternatives are therefore open. One is to obtain a post in a library as a junior assistant, and to study in one's spare time for the examinations of the Library Association. The other is to take the whole-time course at the School of Librarianship, pass the examinations, and secure a post afterwards. Several factors may determine which of the two alternatives shall be followed. If a lad or a girl secures a post in a library on leaving school, he or she will most likely take the Library Association's course, though they need not do so if they prefer to

take the School course as a part-time student. If, however, no immediate opening occurs, and if the parents can afford to maintain the student during the two years that must be spent at College, unless he or she happens to be a graduate, when the course may be completed in one year, the School offers the alternative method of study. This is likely to be easier for people who live in or near London, as there is, at present, only one Library School to serve the whole of the British Isles.

To take the first method, the procedure and requirements are fully set out in the Library Association *Year Book*, which should be consulted, and are briefly as follows. As soon as the beginner has settled down to work, say after three to six months, he should begin to study for the Elementary Examination. This involves passing in: a three hours' paper in elementary English literary history, including a general modern literary knowledge, and in two papers, each of one and a half hours, in elementary classification, elementary cataloguing and accession methods, and in elementary library administration. Failure to satisfy the examiners in any one paper is to fail the examination. Some fuller details concerning this particular examination are given in chapter 7.

Opinions differ on this question of beginning to study for the professional examinations so soon. There is a certain amount of wisdom in the advice which some librarians give to their staffs, to the effect that beginners should spend their first two years in improving and enlarging their general education, and then begin to study. This would be

perfectly wise if so many library authorities did not require assistants to pass so many examinations by the time they were, say, 21 years of age. In view of this, coupled with governmental recommendations that there should be efficiency bars regulated by the passing of professional examinations, it is difficult to see how the unfortunate library assistant can help himself. He is, in fact, between the devil and the deep sea. My personal advice is to get the Elementary and the Intermediate Examinations over as soon as possible.

Having passed the Elementary Examination, the student must next take the Intermediate Examination, which is in two parts : (1) Classification, and (2) Cataloguing. Both parts must be taken together, and again, failure in either part necessitates re-sitting for the whole examination. As will be seen from the table of passes on page 63, this is by no means an easy examination to pass.

Two important things occur at this stage. The student becomes entitled to apply for registration as an Associate of the Library Association, and for the sake of his future career he will be wise to apply as soon as he is qualified to do so. The other is that, unless the student has taken the precaution of getting an approved certificate in a second language, his professional studies will be brought up short here until he has done so. This is also the stage in the scheme of professional studies at which some libraries recognise an assistant as being qualified to take an intermediate senior position.

There now remains only the Final Examination, which is in three parts, (1) English Literary History,

(2) General Bibliography and Book Selection, (3) Advanced Library Administration. In connexion with (2) the candidate may choose to take either historical bibliography, or palæography and archives, or indexing and abstracting. Fortunately for those who are engaged in regular library work, it is permissible to take this examination in its three separate parts, provided that the whole is completed within five years from the taking of the first part.

The other method of securing a diploma in Librarianship is to join the University of London School of Librarianship, at University College. The graduate has an advantage here in that he may complete the course in a year, but people who have passed a matriculation or school-leaving examination, or who produce a certificate accepted as an alternative are usually taken. For these, the full-time course extends over two academic years, lasting from October to June. It may be also taken by part-time students in from three to five years. Other people, not so qualified, are sometimes admitted at the discretion of the Director, who must be satisfied that a sufficiently high standard of education has been attained to enable the course to be followed with advantage.

The ordinary subjects in which courses are provided and examinations held comprise: (1) English Composition, (2) Latin or Greek (or certain other languages), (3) An approved modern European language, (4) Bibliography, (5) Cataloguing and Indexing, (6) Literary History and Book Selection, (7) Classification, (8) Palæography and Archives, (9) Library Organisation, (10) Library Routine.

There are certain alternative courses, and certain exemptions for graduates, full particulars of which will be found in the syllabus, to be had free from the Secretary, University College, Gower Street, London, W.C. 1. The fees for full-time students are : a registration fee of one guinea, and a sessional composition fee of twenty guineas. Graduates taking the whole course in one session pay thirty guineas. Part-time students pay half a guinea registration fee, eighteen guineas a year if the course is to be completed within two years, fourteen guineas if within three years, and twelve guineas a year if it is to be spread over four years. In addition, there is a fee of five guineas for the diploma examination. The award of the diploma is withheld until a whole-time student has served in a library for one year, and a part-time student for two years.

It may be helpful to parents and others if some attempt is made here to indicate the respective advantages and disadvantages of these two methods of study. Theoretically, at least, both diplomas should be regarded as being of equal value, but frankly, there is in some quarters a certain amount of prejudice against the University diploma. It is quite unnecessary that this should be so, and those who allow themselves to be thus prejudiced are, in our view, showing a much to be regretted lack of vision. But that attitude is, fortunately, changing, and will eventually disappear altogether.

The obvious advantage of qualifying for a diploma before beginning work is that, having accomplished this, a person can devote himself wholly to his work, and is not burdened with studying for examinations

over a period of at least five years. Nor must the advantages of getting oral instruction from recognised experts, however theoretical it may be, be overlooked, as likewise the world-wide recognition of any certificate given over the seal of a body like the University of London.

As an indication of the number of people engaged in studying for librarianship at the School, it may be mentioned that during the session for 1932–1933 there were 54 men and 74 women, of whom 68 were full-time, and 60 part-time students. Of these, 70 were registered for the full diploma. During 1933–1934, 125 students were enrolled, of whom 68 were working for the diploma. In 1933, 54 students completed the examination. Of these, 40 passed, 5 failed, and 9 were referred in one subject.

In addition to the tuition offered, students have all the amenities of the College at their disposal, including the Halls of Residence, the Union Society, and the Women's Union Society, and the many other activities that constitute the life of a British University.

As to disadvantages, they are mostly economic. It is not everyone who can afford to maintain a young person over the period occupied by the course, and to pay the fee itself, ranging, as we have shown, to upwards of thirty guineas. There are, too, disadvantages in not joining the school as young as possible, if only because the older one is before completing the course, the more difficult it is likely to be to obtain a post, partly in consequence of the much to be criticised practice in the municipal

service of paying according to age. Library authorities often hesitate to appoint assistants after the age of about twenty, who have not had practical experience. Added to which, when senior appointments are being made, there are, as a rule, juniors who have, and quite rightly so, at least a claim to be considered on equal terms. If the recommendations of the Departmental Committee referred to in this chapter are acted upon, whereby a certain number of new appointments shall be reserved for candidates of about nineteen, as well as for graduates, this difficulty may clear itself. Moreover, we are assured that most of those who have passed the diploma examination of the School of Librarianship have secured appointments, though more often in learned libraries than in public ones. There is, too, the risk that the student may be unfortunate enough to fail or be what is called "referred," which may necessitate taking the whole or some part of the course again, or alternatively, beginning to study for some other career. But there is this risk in any system of examination.

With regard to the Library Association method, the principal disadvantage is that the student has to study over a period of years, and at the same time do his daily work. Occasionally, in small libraries, he may be allowed to do a certain amount of study during his working time, but it is seldom that libraries are so adequately staffed as to permit of this being done. Another, and perhaps smaller disadvantage is that, unless one goes to University College, there are few facilities for oral instruction, and students have to avail themselves of the

correspondence courses organised by the Association of Assistant Librarians, which at the same time have some compensating advantages. In the matter of fees there is not a great deal of difference, if one counts correspondence course fees, examination fees, registration and diploma fees.

The obvious immediate advantage is that one may begin to earn at about sixteen, and in the course of the ordinary day's work learn a good deal that will be invaluable in connexion with his studies.

# CHAPTER FIVE

## CONDITIONS AND PROSPECTS

It is most desirable that entrants to the profession and their parents should have some idea at the outset of the conditions and economic prospects of this work. Every librarian has heard it said that if these had been understood, so-and-so would not have been put into librarianship. The Association of Assistant Librarians has done valuable service by preparing a *Report on the Hours, Salaries, Training, and Conditions of Service in British Municipal Libraries*, 1931, which gives a plain statement of the conditions, besides suggesting ways in which they might be improved, most of which will no doubt be acted on in course of time.

With bad exceptions, the number of hours worked weekly in a public library is about forty-two, though it is hoped that thirty-eight hours will become the accepted standard of the future. It will be seen that the aggregate number of hours is similar to that common to most clerical and professional occupations. But there is this difference. Whereas the person who is "something in the city" works regular hours every day, finishing at five o'clock and commencing again at nine or nine-thirty next morning, the assistant in most branches of the

public library service may not work the same hours for two days running, because librarianship is a public service extending over a twelve hours' day. On Monday, for instance, he may work from nine to one o'clock and from five-thirty until nine, on Tuesday from nine to one and from two until five. On Wednesday he often gets his weekly half-holiday, on Thursday he may work from one until nine o'clock, on Friday he may have another free evening, and on Saturday some similar duty to one of those worked earlier in the week.

The point about these hours is, that while they are not longer than anyone else's, they are more awkward, meals have to be taken at irregular hours, sometimes two of them within four hours.

With regard to holidays, there are the legal bank holidays, or, in cases where an assistant has to work, other days off in lieu. The usual summer holiday lasts for about a fortnight, increasing to three weeks, and possibly to a month in later years.

Salaries differ according to the size of the library system and other circumstances, but the discrepancies, as far as library assistants are concerned, are not as wide as they used to be. Taking male assistants first, and using one scale of salaries as an example, a lad appointed at the age of sixteen would receive a pound a week, with the assurance of annual increments of five shillings a week to two pounds a week by the time he is twenty. He then proceeds from £105 to £165 by annual increments of £15, and thereafter, if he has given satisfactory service and made progress in his professional studies, by increments of £15 to £210. Here, again, some

evidence must be forthcoming that progress has been maintained, in which case three annual increments of £20 will carry him to £270 a year, at the age of thirty.

If promoted to the rank of a senior, he may be put into a grade which commences at £170 a year for one of 24, and proceed to £350 by annual increments of £20 to £250, and then of £25 every two years, by which time he is 36. If he has charge of a branch library or of a department at the Central Library, it may be possible to proceed by special recommendation from £350 to £500 a year, but there are comparatively few positions below the rank of deputy librarian that reach this higher figure.

The pros and cons of equal pay for similar service, irrespective of sex, are outside the scope of this book. But as a rule, women assistants are paid by different scales. In the typical case we are using for an example, both sexes are paid at the same rates from the ages of sixteen to twenty, i.e., £1 to £2 weekly, with annual increments of five shillings. Here there is what is called an efficiency bar. When a woman has passed the Intermediate Examination of the Library Association or the qualifying examination for the diploma in Librarianship of the University of London, she may proceed by annual increments of £10 from £120 to £200 a year. If she is a senior, she is advanced a year on the scale and goes to £220. The senior children's librarian and the senior cataloguer may go on to £300.

It must be made clear that some library authorities pay at lower rates than these, and a few pay at

higher ones. Increments differ to some extent, and in small libraries the librarian receives from £300 to £400 a year, and the assistants proportionately less. Reference has been made to efficiency bars. These are becoming the rule rather than the exception, and line on with the recommendations of the *Report to the Ministry of Health . . . on Qualifications, Recruitment, Training and Promotion of Local Government Officers*, 1934, which says that "Junior officers should be required to pass a qualifying examination before they become eligible for promotion to a higher grade." The day is rapidly going when people get more money year by year merely because they get older.

With regard to County Libraries, the number of hours worked and the holiday periods are similar to those applicable to urban libraries. The headquarters staff work ordinary office hours, with exceptions and overtime from time to time. The salary of a county librarian ranges from £300 a year upwards, an assistant in charge of a small local branch gets upwards of £150 a year, and juniors are paid at about the same rates as those mentioned in connexion with urban libraries.

It is difficult to give reliable salaries figures in what are called special libraries, whether those maintained by societies and institutions, or by commercial firms. As a general rule, they are certainly not higher than those prevailing in the municipal branch of the service. Ordinary office hours are usual, and holiday periods are sometimes longer.

Salaries and conditions of service in the state

libraries are governed by governmental conditions. Working hours are congenial, and holiday allowances liberal. Taking the British Museum as an example, what are known as assistant keepers are appointed between the ages of 22 and 26, and must, normally, hold a first- or second-class honours at a University, with a working knowledge of French and German. As an indication of the salaries paid, a male assistant-keeper (second-class) entering between the ages of 25 and 26 receives a commencing salary of £329, advancing by annual increments of £23 during the two probationary years to £376, and thence by annual increments of approximately £29 to £552. Those entering this grade below the age of 25, " will receive an initial salary, less by £23 in respect of each year or part of a year by which their age is less than 25." If and when a second-class assistant keeper is promoted to the rank of first class, his salary ranges from £593 to £940 a year, by increments of approximately £25.

The scale for women occupying similar positions is: assistant keepers (second class) age 22, £252; 23, £270; 24, £288; 25, £306, rising by annual increments of £18 to £376, and then of £20 to £494. Assistant keepers (first class) from £517 to £784 by increments of £23.

The number of hours worked daily is seven, with a weekly half-holiday, and the annual vacation ranges from 30 days in the first year of service, to 48 days for first-class assistant keepers.

Below these assistant keeperships there is a clerical grade, recruited from boys of about 17 or 18, known as attendants. These may later become library

assistants, but only exceptionally do they pass into the grade of assistant keepers.

Appointments in state libraries are complicated by the fact that librarianship as a definite profession does not appear to be recognised. A government librarian is, in fact, a civil servant first, and a librarian second. In some cases, the clerical staff is selected from the general civil service classes employed in the department concerned, and in cases where it might be necessary to recruit candidates with special qualifications from outside the service, the selection is usually made in the first place by the authorities of the department concerned, probably on the same lines as those indicated in the regulations for the recruitment of assistantships in the National Library of Scotland, the more important of which follow. Special open competitive examinations are not held by the Civil Service Commission for appointments as librarian.

*Regulations for the Competitive Selection of Assistants in the National Library of Scotland.*

" N.B.—These regulations are liable to alteration from time to time. Competitions under these regulations do not take place at fixed intervals, but are held only on the occurrence of vacancies.

" Candidates must have attained the age of 22 and shall as a rule not have attained the age of 26 on a date to be fixed in respect of the competition in which they are to take part, but in special circumstances candidates above the age of 26 or below the age of 22 may be admitted with the approval of the Treasury and the Civil Service Commissioners.

"The trustees of the National Library of Scotland will take such steps as they think most appropriate to make known the existence of any vacancy or vacancies which they desire to fill on any one occasion, and the Civil Service Commissioners will satisfy themselves that the steps taken have been such as to secure all desirable publicity.

"Application shall be addressed in the first instance to the Librarian of the National Library of Scotland and shall be made on the appropriate form. After the last day for application has been reached the authorities of the Department shall scrutinise all the applications received and recommend to the Commissioners such candidates as appear to them qualified for the duties of the posts in question. They shall then forward to the Civil Service Commissioners all the applications received, who may then, if dissatisfied with the candidates presenting themselves, take such steps in consultation with the authorities of the Library as they may think fit to obtain other candidates. The list of qualified candidates shall then be settled by agreement between the Civil Service Commissioners and the authorities of the National Library of Scotland.

"Candidates must satisfy the Civil Service Commissioners that they have received such systematic education, general or technical, or general and technical together, as in their opinion fits them for the post. In general, candidates should possess a University degree or other equivalent qualifications. The Commissioners may, if in doubt, submit any or all of the candidates to a qualifying examination to test such education, or any part of it."

Similar regulations apply in the case of appointments as assistant keepers in the Public Record Office. Application should be addressed in the first instance to the Deputy Keeper of the Records, Public Record Office.

"Successful candidates will enter the Department on the scale of salary of the Junior Grade of the Administrative Class, viz.: £270 15s. od., rising after one year's approved service to £294 4s. od., and after two years' approved service to £317 13s. od.; thence proceeding by annual increments to maxima of £622 13s. od. (men) or £505 7s. od. (women), the maxima being obtainable by men after 13 years' approved service in the grade, and by women after 10 years' approved service in the grade.

"The scales of remuneration are liable to review.

"Successful candidates will be on probation for a period of two years."

Applicants for posts in the library of the Victoria and Albert Museum should address themselves to the Director of the Victoria and Albert Museum.

"The salaries, which are liable to review, are for men:

Keepers £1000 per annum.
Deputy Keepers £900 per annum.
Assistant Keepers (First Class) £475, by increments of £25 to £800 per annum.
Assistant Keepers (Second Class) £250, by increments of £20 to £290, and then by increments of £25 to £440, subject to certain provisos.

"and for women:

Keepers £850 per annum.
Deputy Keepers £750 per annum.
Assistant Keepers (First Class) £410, by increments of £20 to £650 per annum.
Assistant Keepers (Second Class) £230, by increments of £15 to £290, then by increments of £20 to £390, subject to certain provisos."

Precisely similar conditions and salaries apply in the case of the Science Museum at South Kensington. Application should be addressed to the Director of the Science Museum.

A book of this kind is not concerned with questions of general policy, but we cannot let the opportunity pass without recording our regret that librarianship is not in these days recognised as a more definite profession by the State. It would be somewhat disappointing if, after a person had passed the appropriate examinations, he found himself allocated to some branch or department other than the one desired.

Until there is a wider appreciation of the fact that librarianship is as much a profession as other vocations, and that a library cannot be properly administered by anyone who has not received training in its methods, the openings for librarians must remain fewer than they might be. A criticism often levelled against the School of Librarianship is that it is training more people than can be properly absorbed into the profession. The results of an enquiry showed that of 148 British students not previously in the profession who passed the final examination from 1927 until July 1932, 48 were not

yet in permanent employment, but 24 were in temporary posts, 85 held posts in approved libraries, 3 were employed in other libraries, 2 had changed their profession to bookselling and secretaryship, 2 had married, 1 had died, and definite information was unobtainable about 7.

To sum up the economic position, it may be said that librarianship is not a lucrative profession even in its higher phases, that in the public branches of it there are certain disadvantages in the matter of hours, and long week-ends are the exception rather than the rule. On the other hand, for those who qualify by examination and satisfactory service, there are compensating advantages. The work is congenial to those to whom it appeals, there is a reasonable security of tenure, salary progress within limits, reasonable holidays, and generally, a superannuation scheme. The whole question of whether librarianship is worth while seems to centre in whether or not the entrant is out for a career with money in it, or for one with less money and more advantages of other kinds.

## CHAPTER SIX

## BUSINESS ROUTINE

A LOT has been written here and elsewhere about the need for good general education and sound technical training, but nowhere has anyone dealt, save casually, with the need for a knowledge of the elements of business methods. Yet, without in any way detracting from what are called the ideals of librarianship, at rock bottom, modern librarianship is a business, and to be successful it must be run on strictly business lines. It is strange, but true, that the more highly developed a person is in what may be called cultural subjects, the more slipshod he is often apt to be on the business side.

Whatever else an elementary school child lacked when he came to leave school, he usually had a good grounding in " the three r's "—reading, writing, and 'rithmetic—and these still remain first essentials, even for library assistants. It may sound foolish to suggest that any young person of, say 16 or 17, possibly holding a matriculation certificate, is unable to read. Of course, everyone can read a newspaper or a book. But many are sadly lacking when called upon to read aloud, say, half a dozen pages of printer's proof ; the stumblings and the inability to read sensibly are often lamentable. Every beginner in

library work will therefore do well to practise the art of reading aloud. Not only will he then be able to read printer's proof intelligently, but he will be able later on to take a share in the reading circles and story hours that form a part of every modern librarian's work.

Handwriting, and such auxiliaries to it as punctuation, style, and tidiness are frequently atrocious, and again it is often found that better educated people write a worse hand than the so-called uneducated person. We have never been able to fathom the reason why doctors and clergymen, for instance, write so badly. There seems to be an idea that the cultivation of a hand that defies decipherment is a sign of good breeding and education. Alas ! in the eyes of librarians it is but a sign of sheer laziness and slovenliness. There is a recognised style of library handwriting, and despite the view of the young modern assistant, that even to approximate to this is to sink his individuality in a stereotype, it should be insisted upon from the very commencement. After all, if one is not willing to conform to proved requirements in such fundamentals as writing, there are plenty who are.

With regard to punctuation, many assistants have distinctly lax and hazy ideas as to the circumstances in which a comma, a full stop, or something else should be used. All or any of them are just sprinkled anywhere and anyhow. And scarcely anybody thinks of such things as putting a full stop and a comma after an abbreviation, as Mon., Tues., Wed., etc.

As to style, remember that the great things in English literature are those written in the simplest and clearest language ; the Bible for instance. There is an idea that unless many, and often unnecessarily long, words are used, an examiner will not be pleased. This again is an altogether wrong idea. Simplicity and clarity of meaning are always good and looked-for features, but seldom found.

We have dwelt on this matter of writing and its auxiliaries at some length, because experience as a librarian, a teacher and an examiner tells us how important they are, and how determined such people are that there shall be a proper standard in these matters.

There is a good deal of simple arithmetic to do in any library, and an assistant who cannot add up correctly the issue sheet or the issue book, calculate the daily average, the class percentages, and such-like things, is a nuisance, and often involves some-one else in hours of work. All figures that lend themselves to cross-checking should invariably be so checked before they are passed over to someone else.

But, besides those three r's, there are a lot of other things that a beginner should train himself in. Elsewhere we have spoken about punctuality, and need therefore do no more than mention it here in passing.

When beginning work in a library, or changing to some other library, one of the first things to be done is to learn the geography of the building ; a good way of doing this is to draw a rough plan, showing the positions of the different rooms, public and

private, and of their essential furniture. One should know where certain things are done, and why they are not done somewhere else. For instance, what is done in the workroom and what is not, where is the registration work done, and so on. Next, the new-comer should find out who is who in the respective departments, and what positions and responsibilities each carries in relation to the library system. The beginner will find that he has a good deal of menial work to do, ranging from dusting books and posting letters to shelving and tidying—though the last two sound much more exciting when we give to them and kindred jobs the very delightful designation adopted by Wilma Bennett, an American librarian, in her recent book *The Student Library Assistant*. She calls it all " grooming and beautifying the library " !

Learn the rules of your library. No assistant can do his duty intelligently unless he knows precisely the rules framed for the good government of his library.

Nor need we say more here about the importance of tidiness, both in person and in work, except to repeat what we have said somewhere else, to the effect that an untidy person, or untidiness in work habits, are frequently a sure index to an untidy mind. Or about the need for a good memory. If your senior does not provide you with an official one, buy a twopenny notebook or a cheap diary, and make notes of anything that is likely to escape your memory. If, for instance, you work a different timesheet every week, on Saturday write down your times for the ensuing week. To say the least, it is

very annoying when an assistant due on at 9 a.m., turns up at 1 p.m., and offers the excuse that he has mistaken his times. If you have a duty that recurs on definite days, write it down.

We have spoken about the need for good arithmetic. Librarians are fond of keeping statistics of all sorts of things, some of which the beginner will see no purpose in. But that is not his concern ; it is his duty to keep correctly such records of readers, issues, stock, monetary transactions, and other things as his chief may require, or at any rate, those delegated to him. A word of explanation here may not be out of place. At the beginning of this chapter we said that at rock bottom a modern library is a business. Now the test of whether a business concern is flourishing or not, is to be found in its balance sheet, but as a library is not a trading concern, it cannot show its state of health in terms of monetary dividends, but it can do so in records of work accomplished. The statistical records kept in libraries are, therefore, in point of fact, its balance sheet. There then is the reason why librarians keep so many of them—sometimes too many undoubtedly, but again, that is not our concern here.

In connexion with figures, the library assistant should have some idea of the elements of book-keeping, such as knowing the debit and credit side of a ledger and what goes on each, how to balance a ledger or postage book, how to make out and check an invoice or an order, etc. Graphs and diagrams are sometimes used for showing variations in issues, to justify the need for a new library, and for a lot of other things. Learn what a graph is if

you do not know, and try making one or two for yourself, if for no other purpose.

Monetary transactions in libraries are comparatively small, and resolve themselves into receipts for fines and other things, and petty cash payments. Accounts in payment for books, stationery, and other things are usually paid by cheque by the Accountant's Department, on the recommendation of the accounts sub-committee of the library committee. Similarly, the official records of such payments are usually kept in that department, though the librarian often keeps a ledger account for his own current information. In connexion with such receipts as fines, the greatest care should be taken to see that a receipt is given for all money received, however small the amount. Neglect to do this may involve an assistant in serious trouble, and may, quite unintentionally, render him liable to suspicion of pilfering. Payments are made in two ways: by cash in the case of small casual expenditures, like fares, returned bespoken fees, carriage of goods, and small purchases. These are made from the petty cash, and may be in coin, or where the money has to be sent away, by Postal Order, or, occasionally, by Money Order. A junior should not make payments from the petty cash unless he has been authorised to do so, and when he does, in all possible cases he must get a receipt for payments made. He should know the difference between a Postal Order and a Money Order, and how to get and use both. In the case of Postal Orders, the counterfoil should be kept and filled in, the Order filled in, and if to a firm, crossed. Other accounts, as we have

said, are usually paid by cheque by the Accountant's Department.

In larger libraries, a junior will have little to do with the actual writing of correspondence, but in smaller ones he may often have to do it. Hence the desirability of a knowledge of shorthand and typewriting, and of knowing how to draft and set out a letter decently. In using a typewriter, he should avoid the reprehensible habit of just going over a wrong letter ; erase it, always. He will almost certainly be concerned with the distribution of inward correspondence, and the despatch of the outward. The former should be handled promptly, in accordance with local practice, the latter should be properly entered in the postage book, and great care exercised in seeing that it is correctly stamped. The inland and foreign postage rates should be learned, as also the regulations governing circulars and printed matter. The junior will at least have a lot of addressing to do, largely of overdues, bespoken notices, etc. Care should be taken to see that envelopes and cards are correctly and sufficiently addressed. Abbreviations like Gs. for Gardens, or even St. for Street should be avoided. Letters addressed to London should include the proper postal district number, those to the provinces should include the name of the county as well as of the town, as there are at least two of many towns ; foreign letters should receive special attention. Needless to say, copies must be kept of all outward correspondence in accordance with the practice in use, whether by press-copying or by carbon.

We have stressed the need for a knowledge of

shorthand and typewriting. As early as possible, an assistant may also learn with advantage how to use such modern office labour-saving devices as the duplicator and the adding machine, where they are available. Filing systems should be studied, especially that variety known as the vertical file, which is used in libraries for so many purposes, besides correspondence.

A word about parcels—especially important in these days of regional bureaux and constant interchange of books through the post. Every junior should learn how to tie up a parcel of books securely, and sufficiently wrapped to ensure safe transit. Indeed, the success or otherwise of these co-operation schemes depends in no small measure on how this postal service works in the matter of damage that might be avoided.

Every public library has business relations with other departments of the corporation. Chief among these is the Town Clerk's, the Town Clerk often acting as clerk to the library committee, in which event one of his clerks attends the committee meetings for the purpose of recording the minutes. He also draws up legal documents, such as agreements and tenders. The Accountant's or Treasurer's Department keeps and pays the accounts, salaries and wages, prepares financial statements, audits receipt books, and, if the Rates department is a subdepartment, verifies doubtful guarantors whose names do not appear in the ordinary printed records.

Writing about wages and salaries affords an opportunity of reminding assistants that it is to their interest, as well as being their duty, to make them-

selves conversant with the regulations governing sick leave and insurance benefits. Every assistant who absents himself from duty should at once inform his chief, and if the absence is likely to be for more than two or three days, forward a medical certificate.

The Engineer's Department often undertakes or supervises the upkeep of the library buildings, advises the librarian on alterations, extensions and new buildings, prepares specifications of structural work, and draws plans. It is the duty of the Public Health Department to advise on infectious diseases, to collect and disinfect books exposed to infection, and to determine the periods over which borrowers and their households are to be precluded from using the library. Lastly, there is the Education Department, which co-operates in the work of the children's libraries, and sometimes provides school libraries, in addition to, or in substitution of, Junior libraries.

In conclusion, the need is stressed for more teamwork in the library service. The system cannot run smoothly if there is a lack of co-operation between the various departments, and instances are not unknown where the work of the library as a whole has been definitely hampered through this lack of *esprit de corps*. Every library assistant should do his best to ensure that his library and his profession are not belittled by pettiness and efforts towards mere personal glorification.

## CHAPTER SEVEN

# METHODS OF STUDY

It used to be the practice for students to take their professional examinations in any order they chose, with the result that young people of seventeen or eighteen sometimes passed the examination in Library Organisation, which certified them capable of planning and organising a library system before they could have got even a bare grounding in the elements. This did not tend to enhance the value of certificates, and in 1933 a new system came into force, by which the examinations were graded into Elementary, Intermediate, and Final. It is with the first of these that we are here concerned.

At the outset, certain conditions have to be fulfilled. No-one is allowed to sit for the elementary examination who has not completed his seventeenth year; candidates must produce evidence of having passed an approved educational examination approximating to matriculation standard, and must be members, or transitional members, of the Library Association. Graduates of an approved university may alone apply for exemption from the examination.

The Association holds examinations twice a year, in May and in December, and application to sit

must be received by the Secretary, at Chaucer House, Malet Place, London, W.C. 1, on the prescribed form, not later than March 31 for the May examination, and October 31 for the December one. In no circumstances will entries be accepted after these dates. The entrance fee is half a guinea.

The examination is held in London and at other centres, occupies a day, and consists of three papers, one of three hours in English literary history, one in elementary classification, elementary cataloguing and accession methods, and one in elementary library administration, each occupying one and a half hours. The number of questions usually to be answered is six in the first paper, and three in each of the other two. It is necessary that candidates shall pass in all three papers, and they may do so with honours, merit, or an ordinary pass.

The method of study is left to the individual, and unless there happen to be oral classes organised privately at the library in which he works, the student will have to pursue his studies with the aid of the textbooks mentioned in the Library Association *Year Book*, a copy of which every student should at least have access to, even if he does not buy it for himself. Besides all the examination syllabuses in detail, and copies of the previous year's papers, it contains a mine of other useful information. The cost is five shillings to non-members, half a crown to members, and no better half-crown's worth of professional literature exists.

Alternatively, the student may join one of the correspondence courses organised by the Association of Assistant Librarians. The fee for the elementary

course is one and a half guineas to members, and it consists of ten lessons sent out at monthly intervals. Application for enrolment should be made to Mr. S. W. Martin, F.L.A., at the Carnegie Library, Herne Hill Road, London, S.E. 24, and must be received by the dates announced from time to time in *The Library Assistant*, usually March and October.

Students are recommended to join one of these correspondence courses, because, while they lack some of the advantages of oral tuition, they at least ensure that regular study is done along definite lines, and the tutor is always glad to advise students on obscure points.

Assuming that the reader has begun work in a library, one of the first things he should do is to become a transitional member of the Library Association through the Association of Assistant Librarians, which is a section of the Library Association. The cost is ten shillings a year until one is in receipt of a salary of £150 a year, and it will be entirely his own fault if he does not get a good deal more than ten shillings in value out of his membership. Besides receiving the official journal, which in itself will put him in touch with modern trends of library development, he can attend the meetings organised in London and the provinces, and which often afford unique opportunities for seeing libraries of widely differing types, there is a valuable professional library of textbooks, and in the summer, the Library Association holds a Summer School at Birmingham, which is well worth attending. More than anything else, it brings library workers into touch with each other, and affords a means of

exchanging views and of discussing mutual problems. In any case, membership has to be taken up before anyone can sit for an examination.

As a general rule, the elementary examination should not be taken until one has been in the library service for at least a year, because, roughly speaking, it may be said that it is a test of what the candidate has learned during the first year of his career, or, as the *Year Book* puts it, "a test of the practical competence of a candidate." There are reasons why the beginner should not delay taking this examination much beyond a year. He may be unfortunate enough to fail, and if he does this a second time he should consider very seriously whether it is wise to continue in a profession that requires the passing of still two further series of examinations, and in which the higher posts must go to those who have gained their full diploma. It is better and easier to leave a profession while in one's teens than to hang on, only to become more and more embittered by disappointment as time goes by.

A second reason is that, in many cases, increases in salary are dependent, after a few years, say at twenty-one, on having passed the intermediate examination.

A third reason is that the sooner the candidate gets through the whole of the examinations the better for himself and his position, the better for his work, and for the development of intellectual and other pursuits for which he may have a bent.

Assuming that a student has already passed his two language examinations, it must be at least five

years before he can obtain the Diploma, and considerably longer if he wishes to get an Honours Diploma, to obtain which a thesis must be written on some subject approved by the Association. An estimate of the time likely to be taken, even if the student is lucky every time, is :

| | |
|---|---|
| Elementary Examination | 1 year |
| Intermediate Examination | 1 year |

During these two years an effort should be made to pass an examination in the second language, if this has not been done already. No one may proceed to the final examination without having done so.

Continuing, then, we get :

| | |
|---|---|
| Final Examination | |
| Part 1 . . . | $1\frac{1}{2}$ years |
| Part 2 . . . | 1 year |
| Part 3 . . . | $\frac{1}{2}$ year |
| Total . . . | 5 years |

This is assuming the student to be lucky every time ; in which case, he is lucky indeed ! A fairer estimate would be six years from the time of commencement.

It should be understood that the passing of the professional examinations is no mere matter of course, as will be seen from the following figures of the results during the first year's operation of the new syllabus.

| | Entrants | Passes |
|---|---|---|
| Elementary . . . | 554 | 392 |
| Intermediate | | |
| Part 1 (classification) . | 384 | 53 |
| Part 2 (cataloguing) . | 283 | 145 |
| Final | | |
| Part 1 (literary history) | 21 | 12 |
| Part 2 (bibliography and book selection) | 77 | 30 |
| Part 3 (advanced library administration) | 28 | 20 |
| | 1347 | 652 |

Percentage of passes, 48·4

It is no easy task for those who, in addition, have also to do a full day's work. This fact makes it only the more imperative that assistants should get down to their studies in real earnest while they are still young and have few responsibilities, ties, or interests. It is more so to-day than it was even a few years ago, because librarianship is becoming more and more attractive to graduates and to those who, by good fortune, are able to take the whole-time course of study at the University of London School of Librarianship, and so begin work in a library without the perpetual thought of one examination after another hovering over them. This advice needs to be written in bold phrases, because one's impression of many present-day library assistants is that they do not get down to

their studies as they might, and it is only kind to say that if they neglect to do so, they will rue it in the course of a few years. Not only may they fail to get a responsible position, but, in accordance with recent suggestions of the Departmental Committee on *Qualifications, Recruitment, Training, and Promotion of Local Government Officers*, those who do not show substantial progress in their studies may find it impossible to pass beyond a comparatively low salary. We quote from the Report at some length, because it is of supreme importance that the position should be understood :

"At the present time the only officers who receive any definite training are, as a rule, those who study for one of the technical examinations. . . . One or two local authorities are, however, making a systematic use of examinations in the training of officers ; . . . the London County Council divide their clerical staff into a general grade, recruited between sixteen and eighteen years of age, and a major establishment, recruited partly from outside between eighteen and twenty-one years of age, and partly from the general grade ; and promotion from the general grade to the major establishment is by competitive examination, after five years' service. . . . No doubt the primary object of this examination is to solve the problem of promotion, but the study for the examination possesses training value. In some other authorities, promotion beyond a certain point is, in one or two departments, dependent on the passing of an approved examination. . . .

"It is for consideration whether local authorities might not as a general rule require junior officers to

pass some qualifying examination before they are considered eligible for promotion to positions carrying administrative responsibility.

"Assuming that suitable examinations are available . . . a requirement that all junior officers should pass an approved examination before promotion beyond a certain point would, in our view, be a valuable contribution to their training. It would encourage them to study, keeping their minds active during a period when they are likely to be engaged on routine work, and developing their interest in their work by expanding their understanding of it. It is important to remember that the majority of local government officers finish their school education at sixteen years of age. The representative of the Headmasters Conference suggested to us that this is, from one point of view, an unsatisfactory age at which to leave school, as the boy had then reached the stage when he is capable of advanced study, but has not yet begun it. . . .

"The establishment of an examination bar would have the further advantage of providing local authorities with some guarantee of fitness before appointing a senior clerical or administrative officer, as they have now before appointing a professional or technical officer. An examination is not in itself a reliable test of ability, but it is some indication of capacity to concentrate, of resourcefulness, of determination to succeed. There can be no doubt that the recognition accorded to technical qualifying examinations during recent years has done a great deal to improve the quality of local government

officers on the technical side ; and while we recognise that examinations are less satisfactory as tests of administrative than of technical ability, we think that the example is instructive.

"On the whole, therefore, we are of opinion that local authorities would benefit if they required their junior officers to pass a qualifying examination as a condition of promotion beyond a certain point. There will be cases, no doubt, in which it is not practicable to insist on a recognised standard in all candidates for promotion to the senior posts, and we should not wish an obviously able officer to be debarred from promotion simply because he had not passed an examination. Such cases should, however, be regarded as exceptional.

"If our recommendation that comparable staff grades should be established throughout the service is accepted, it should be possible to place the bar at a corresponding point in all local authorities. The point taken should be fairly low. Candidates for high technical appointments are ordinarily required to hold the appropriate technical qualification ; while in candidates for high administrative appointments experience and personal record are more important than examination results. We have in mind for the general qualifying examination, examinations of 'intermediate' standard.

"In the local authorities where grading schemes are in force, there is ordinarily a general grade for clerical officers from entry at sixteen to a point somewhere in the twenties, say twenty-five. We suggest that success in a qualifying examination should be expected of officers in this general grade,

before they are considered eligible for transfer to any other grade which is in a line for promotion to responsible administrative positions."

Before concluding this chapter, one or two hints may be useful to those preparing for this examination.

Handwriting, punctuation, and style, as we have said elsewhere, are of the greatest importance, and experience as an examiner and a teacher for many years has shown that in large numbers of cases, all three are lamentable, often through sheer carelessness.

If the student is working without any assistance, he should be careful to carry out his studies in a methodical manner, and not jump from one subject to another indiscriminately. Besides reading the textbooks, he should set aside a certain amount of time for the reading of literature, dividing it, as far as possible, between that of the past and that of to-day.

But it is not enough merely to read textbooks. He should study the methods in use at his own and other libraries ; ask himself why this or that process is carried out, and if it could be improved in any way. It may be helpful to answer in writing the Knowledge Tests given in this book, and then to check the answers as far as possible.

If a member of a correspondence class, the student should adhere strictly to the tutor's instructions and time-table, answer the questions set in his own way, and not in garbled versions of the language of the textbooks. He should be original if he can, by introducing his own examples into the answers.

There are certain of these given in textbooks, the sight of which, tutors and examiners alike are perfectly sick! Answer the questions adequately, but do not go off into bypaths, or write pages and pages for the mere sake of writing them. Most students write far too much.

Finally, whether an independent student or a member of a class, one should cultivate the habit of planning answers, by writing a skeleton of the main heads of each answer, and then filling it out in the answer proper.

## CHAPTER EIGHT

# THE EXAMINATION

This short chapter is intended to be read or re-read after the student has plodded for a year through the elementary syllabus, and learned a lot in the pursuit of his everyday work that will make him ready to present himself for examination. Examinations affect people in different ways. Some can sit for them unperturbed, confident of success, while others they make positively ill. But even the most hardened should not be too cocksure. As a general rule, a margin of safety should be allowed. Very good work through a course of study may produce only good results at an examination, while good work may only produce fair results when the time for the ordeal comes round, and so on. Some hints may not be out of place, though few of us are keen to accept other people's advice in matters of this kind.

Nobody does it, but it is a good plan to slack off during the fortnight immediately prior to the day. Get as much fresh air and relaxation as you can. It is common practice for students to swot harder during the last fortnight than they have done all along, to sit up for half of the last night, and only to lay aside their textbooks as they enter the portals of the examination room, all of which is definitely

bad. If you have pursued a course of study thoroughly and conscientiously, it should be unnecessary.

Make a point of finding out precisely where your centre is, and how it can be reached most easily. Allow yourself ample time to do so ten minutes before the appointed hour, and remember to take your admission card with you, as likewise your fountain-pen fully charged if you use one, or alternatively, your favourite nib, a ruler, and perhaps a pencil for preliminary notes. Before going into the room, remember that when once you get there you are fixed for three hours !

You will probably find on your desk a sheet of Instructions to Candidates. Read these, and see to it that you carry them out precisely.

When the invigilator gives out the question paper, keep calm, spend some minutes in reading it, and make up your mind which questions you are going to attempt, not forgetting that certain of them may be compulsory. It is most important that any so marked should be attempted ; you will be wise to get rid of them first.

Before beginning to write, recall what was said earlier about your handwriting, punctuation, style, and the planning of your answers. Write your correct entrance number at the head of each sheet, and at the beginning of the question you are answering, its number as printed on the question paper ; if you continue an answer to another sheet, carry the question number forward. Allow yourself plenty of room ; you can have as much paper as necessary.

Confine yourself to the subject of the question and do not write sheets and sheets for the sake of using up time. The examiners are not impressed by the mere number of the pages you have succeeded in filling. Try to preserve some sort of balance between your answers. Students have been known to write a veritable treatise on one question, with the consequence that the others have been scamped. It is not safe to spend more than half an hour on any one question.

Elsewhere we have spoken of the need for a sense of humour. But examination papers are not suitable vehicles in which to display it. Too often, attempts at smart humour and facetiousness are used as a cloak for concealing ignorance—at least, this is the impression examiners generally get from such displays.

It is a waste of time to answer more questions than the number stipulated. You only place the examiners in a dilemma, and may even render yourself liable to disqualification.

Try to keep a quarter of an hour at the end for a general run over of your answers. If your work is on single sheets, arrange them in order, see that your number is on every one, and no other information whatsoever by which it might be possible for you to be identified.

Fasten your answers together, put them into the envelope provided, write your number and other required information in the spaces provided, hand it to the invigilator, and try to possess your soul in patience for the next seven weeks, at the end of which you will be notified how you fared.

# PART TWO

## CHAPTER NINE

# ELEMENTARY ENGLISH LITERARY HISTORY

### I.—To the Victorian Era.

EVEN more important than a grounding in library technique, much of which the beginner will assimilate in the course of his everyday work, is a thorough grounding in English literature of past generations and of our own day. Let there be no confusion of thought as to what is meant by a grounding in English literature. It is not just a bare knowledge of names and dates, or the sort of knowledge that can be acquired from textbooks alone. It is something that can only come through getting to know the writings of the men and women who have given us this priceless heritage, and it can be done with any real pleasure only by people who have a natural or an acquired liking for books.

One would hesitate to say that there are not some quite capable librarians who, confessedly, would find no pleasure in reading, say, the Prologue to *The Canterbury Tales*, but the fact remains that the real joy of librarianship comes from an aptitude for the masterpieces of the world's literature. We go so far as to say that anybody who lacks this aptitude

should think carefully before embarking on a career that is wholly centred in books and their value; otherwise it may become sheer boredom.

Because the Library Association is satisfied that this knowledge of English literature is of such fundamental importance in the making of a good librarian, it has given the subject first place in its examination syllabus. Briefly, it is expected that entrants for the Elementary examination shall have (1) a knowledge of English literary history from the time of Chaucer down to 1870, and especially of the thirty or so writers we shall enumerate, and (2) a general modern literary knowledge.

The student will find ample guidance in connexion with the first requirement in the textbooks recommended in the syllabus, especially in Stopford Brooke's little primer, *English Literature* (Macmillan), which should find a place in the pocket of every beginner in library work, and in Compton-Rickett's *Primer of English Literature* (Nelson). The purpose of the Oxford Books is to afford students some opportunity of making first-hand acquaintance with the works of some of the greater figures in English literature.

For the second, the syllabus suggests Manly and Rickert's *Contemporary British Literature* (Harrap). But to keep himself properly informed of the trends of modern English literature, the junior assistant must make himself acquainted with the additions to his own library, which should at least get the cream of the many thousands of books published annually, as far as its limited funds permit. If at the same time he reads some such paper as *The*

*Times Literary Supplement*, this second part of the syllabus should prove less difficult than it might seem to be.

In making the notes that follow, it will be as well to remind readers of what is said in the preface, to the effect that this is not intended to act as a self-contained textbook, except in those cases where information is not readily available in convenient or sufficiently simple form. There are plenty of good general textbooks on English literature, two of which we have mentioned already, including Compton-Rickett's *Primer*, whose periods we have adopted here.

## 1. THE MAKING OF THE ENGLISH SPEECH: THE MIDDLE ENGLISH PERIOD, *c.* 1050–*c.* 1400

While it is true that the poet specially indicated in the syllabus for special study,

GEOFFREY CHAUCER, 1340–1400,

is the father of English literature as we know it, it is a pity that the student should commence here and learn nothing of the background against which our literature is set. We strongly recommend everyone to go back to the beginnings of things, and at least try to know a little about the fabric on which the pattern has been woven. The epic poem of *Beowulf*, and the writings of Caedmon, Cynewulf, Bede, King Alfred, William Langland, and John Wyclif are all worth attention. Nor should the great story-cycles, like the Arthurian romances, which had their origins at this time, be overlooked. Other names that leap

to the mind include those of William of Malmesbury, Geoffrey of Monmouth, and Layamon the monk.

The state of learning at the time our study begins may be judged by a bare mention of a few of the epoch-making events that had come and gone, though their effects lived on when Chaucer wrote.

The Norman Conquest had happened. Thomas à Becket had been murdered in Canterbury Cathedral in 1170, and pilgrimages to his shrine were already in progress. Richard I had led his crusade to the Holy Land from 1190–1194. Magna Carta had been signed in 1215, and the universities of Oxford and Cambridge were founded. England, Scotland, and France were more or less constantly at war, and in the world of foreign literature, Dante was born in 1265, Petrarch in 1304, and Boccaccio in 1313.

*Readings*

Stopford Brooke, ch. 1–2
Compton-Rickett's Primer, ch. 1
Oxford Book of English Verse, pp. 1–14
Oxford Book of English Prose, pp. 1–34

*Knowledge Tests*

1. Write short notes on Caedmon, Bede, and King Alfred.

2. What did Chaucer do for English literature ?

3. Tell the story of one of *The Canterbury Tales* in your own words.

4. What do you know about the beginnings of the Arthurian legends in English literature ?

5. What translation of The Bible appeared in this period ?

## 2. THE ENGLISH RENAISSANCE, 1400–1660

Opening at a time when English literature was at its lowest ebb, this period became the most prolific in its annals, covering as it does, more than two centuries of amazing progress. The six figures selected for special study may be arranged under three heads :

*Poets*

EDMUND SPENSER, 1552 ?–1599
JOHN MILTON, 1608–1674

*Dramatists*

CHRISTOPHER MARLOWE, 1564–1593
WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, 1564–1616
BEN JONSON, 1573–1637

*Prose writers*

JOHN BUNYAN, 1628–1688

To these, one could add others, as William Caxton (1422 ?–1491 ?), Sir Thomas Malory (1430–1480) with his *Morte d'Arthur*, Sir Thomas More (1478–1535) with his *Utopia*, Francis Beaumont (1584–1616), and John Fletcher (1579–1625).

In the realm of poetry there are also : Sir Thomas Wyatt (1503 ?–1542), the Earl of Surrey (1516 ?–1547), who by the way, introduced blank verse, Sir Philip Sidney (1554–1586), Robert Herrick (1591–1674), while of prose writers there were :

John Lyly (1554 ?–1606), Sir Francis Bacon (1561–1626), Sir Thomas Browne (1605–1682), and Robert Burton (1577–1640). Nor must it be forgotten that this was the period that produced the Authorised Version of the Bible, an event which, with the introduction of printing and the consequent dissemination of books, fixed the language for all time.

During this period, war with France continued, Agincourt was fought in 1415, and Joan of Arc was burned in 1431, the Wars of the Roses were fought, Gutenberg had set up his press and printed the Mazarin Bible in 1455, and in 1476 an event that was to mean much for English literature took place, by the settlement in England of William Caxton.

With the sixteenth century came the reign of Henry VIII, the rise and fall of Cardinal Wolsey, the development of the new learning, the discovery of America in 1492, Martin Luther, the issue of Coverdale's English Bible in 1535, the dissolution of the monasteries, and the full force of the Reformation with all its implications.

The development of learning and the spirit of adventure reached their summit during Elizabeth's reign (1558–1603) ; Drake, Hawkins, Raleigh, and the Spanish Armada filled the arena, and the conditions were never more favourable for the spread of learning and the creation of imaginative literature. It was now, in 1576, that the first public theatre was opened in London.

The sixty years of the seventeenth century that fall within this period were stormy enough, including as they did, the reign of James I and the Gunpowder

Plot, which threatened to undo all that the Elizabethan era had established. But it was just then that Francis Bacon issued his *Advancement of Learning* in 1605, and Milton produced some of his earlier work. The years from 1625 to 1649 were those of Charles I and the Civil War, which continued until the return of Charles II, in 1660.

### *Readings*

Stopford Brooke, ch. 3–5
Compton-Rickett, ch. 2
Oxford Book of English Verse, pp. 14–460
Oxford Book of English Prose, pp. 35–254

### *Knowledge Tests*

1. What do you know about the morality, miracle, and mystery plays ?

2. In what ways did Caxton contribute to the development of English literature ?

3. Write an essay on the Renaissance in its relation to English literature.

4. Write notes on the chief works of Edmund Spenser.

5. Into what three classes do Shakespeare's plays divide ? List the more important plays in each.

6. Into what main groups does the work of Milton divide itself ?

7. Write short notes on : "The Temple," "Hudibras," "The Pilgrim's Progress," "Lycidas," "Euphues," "Utopia."

8. What is the place of Ben Jonson in the history of the drama ?

### 3. THE AGE OF SATIRE, 1660–1740

The four figures specifically named, and all of them of great importance are:

JOHN DRYDEN, 1631–1700
ALEXANDER POPE, 1688–1744
JOSEPH ADDISON, 1672–1719
JONATHAN SWIFT, 1667–1745

In giving "special attention" to these four, the fact must not be lost sight of that the period also gave us a number of other men whose names have become household ones. They include: Oliver Goldsmith (1728–1774), Richard Brinsley Sheridan (1751–1816), the diarists Samuel Pepys (1633–1703) and John Evelyn (1620–1706), and Daniel Defoe (*c.* 1661–1731). There is no need even to mention the names of their outstanding works; everyone knows them.

Nationally, this period was ushered in with the Great Plague and the Fire of London, almost coincident with the completion of Milton's *Paradise Lost.* Science was developing rapidly, Newton having produced his *Theory of Light* in 1672, and his *Principia* in 1687. Charles II had died in 1685, James II reigned in his place, and there was a strong reaction from puritanism, party government was being developed, and gave rise to a large amount of political and controversial literature.

*Readings*

Stopford Brooke, ch. 6
Compton-Rickett, ch. 3
Oxford Book of English Verse, pp. 461–511
Oxford Book of English Prose, pp. 254–382

*Knowledge Tests*

1. Compare the literary work of Swift and Defoe.
2. What signs do you see in this period of the coming of the novel ?
3. Comment on the statement that "the distinctive qualities of Dryden as a poet are ease, variety of method, and vigour."
4. What in your view has made *Robinson Crusoe* an immortal story ?
5. What do you know of the writings of Alexander Pope ?
6. Write a note about "Sir Roger de Coverley."

### 4. THE AGE OF SENSE AND SENSIBILITY, *c.* 1740–1780

The figures selected for special attention here are, in the first instance, prose writers. The absence of poets from the period is to be noted ; it was definitely an age of prose. They are :

SAMUEL JOHNSON, 1709–1784
OLIVER GOLDSMITH, 1728–1774
HENRY FIELDING, 1707–1754

The period produced other prose writers whose work should not be overlooked, including : Edmund Burke (1729–1797), certainly Edward Gibbon (1737–1794), Samuel Richardson (1689–1761),and Laurence Sterne (1713–1768).

By now, modern England had come into being. Even within so short a period as this, the spinning jenny and the spinning machine were invented, canals were being cut, the steam engine had been invented, and the way was being paved for the Industrial Revolution.

It was, too, the period of the beginnings of the Indian Empire, of the American War of Independence, and of the genesis of the English periodical.

*Readings*

Stopford Brooke, part of ch. 7
Compton-Rickett, ch. 4
Oxford Book of English Verse, pp. 512–544
Oxford Book of English Prose, pp. 382–472

*Knowledge Tests*

1. To what causes do you attribute the predominance of prose literature in this period?

2. Who wrote "Tom Jones," "Rasselas," "The Tale of a Tub," "Tristram Shandy"?

3. What parts do Gibbon and Burke respectively play in English literature?

4. Write a note on *The Vicar of Wakefield.*

5. Why does Samuel Johnson hold a unique place in English literature?

6. Who wrote "John Gilpin," and what is its story?

### 5. THE ROMANTIC REVIVAL, *c.* 1780–1832

This is one of the shortest periods in English literary history, and yet, proportionately, one of the most prolific. Five poets and three prose writers have been chosen as representative of it:

*Poets*

ROBERT BURNS, 1759–1796
WILLIAM WORDSWORTH, 1770–1850
GEORGE GORDON, LORD BYRON, 1788–1824
PERCY BYSSHE SHELLEY, 1792–1822
JOHN KEATS, 1795–1821

*Prose writers*

SIR WALTER SCOTT, 1771–1832
JANE AUSTEN, 1775–1817
CHARLES LAMB, 1775–1834

While we find general agreement that these eight names dominate the galaxy of those who wrote during the period, there are others who cannot be overlooked, even to the extent of paying some "special attention" to them. Among the poets: Thomas Gray (1716–1771), whose *Elegy written in a Country Churchyard* has been learned parrot-wise by most school children, Robert Southey (1774–1843), William Blake (1757–1827), William Cowper (1731–1800), and S. T. Coleridge (1772–1834).

Several of the above are likewise remembered as writers of fine prose, and to such we may add names like Thomas de Quincey (1785–1859), William Hazlitt (1778–1830), Leigh Hunt (1784–1859), Edward Bulwer Lytton (1803–1873), and Fanny Burney (1752–1840).

It is unnecessary to say more about the historical setting of this period than that the Napoleonic Wars raged, that the Industrial Revolution was making itself more and more felt, and that the great Reform Act of 1832 brought into existence a more truly representative Parliament.

*Readings*

Stopford Brooke, second half of ch. 7, and ch. 8.
Compton-Rickett, ch. 5.
Oxford Book of English Verse, pp. 545–744
Oxford Book of English Prose, pp. 472–641

*Knowledge Tests*

1. What do you know about the critical essay writers of this period?
2. Compare the styles of Wordsworth and Shelley.
3. Write an essay on the theme of one of Sir Walter Scott's novels.
4. What do we mean by "the Lake poets"?
5. In what ways did the poetry of Lord Byron depart from the orthodox lines of his time?
6. What were the chief characteristics of the romantic revival?
7. What were the "Lyrical Ballads"?
8. Write what you know about one of Jane Austen's novels.

### 6. THE VICTORIAN ERA, *c.* 1832–1900

Not since the Elizabethan Age had conditions been so favourable to the development of pure literature. The rumblings of the Napoleonic Wars had died away, the spirit of revolt against the economic conditions had been superseded by a desire for progress with the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832, and there was a demand for the better education of the masses, evidence of which is to be seen in the passing of the Public Libraries Act of 1850 and of the Education Act of 1870.

The syllabus enumerates only a fraction of the writers who must claim attention in connexion with this period. They are:

*Poets*

ELIZABETH BARRETT BROWNING, 1806–1861
ROBERT BROWNING, 1812–1889
ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON, 1809–1892

*Novelists*

EMILY BRONTË, 1818–1848
ANNE BRONTE 1820–1849
CHARLOTTE BRONTË, 1816–1855
CHARLES DICKENS, 1812–1870
WILLIAM MAKEPEACE THACKERAY, 1811–1863
GEORGE ELIOT, 1819–1880

*General prose writers*

THOMAS CARLYLE, 1795–1881

If we begin to suggest other writers who should not be overlooked, it is going to be difficult to know where to stop. But here are a few:

Poets: Matthew Arnold (1822–1888), Dante (1828–1882) and Christina Rossetti (1830–1894), Algernon Charles Swinburne (1837–1909), Francis Thompson (1859–1907), and Sir William Watson (b. 1858).

The prose writers are even more numerous and difficult to select. But any list would include such names as: John Ruskin (1819–1900), William Morris (1834–1896), Robert Louis Stevenson (1850–1894), Thomas Huxley (1825–1895), Charles Darwin (1809–1882), and among novelists surely Mrs. Gaskell (1810–1865), George Meredith (1828–1909), though he was a great poet as well, Thomas Hardy (1840–1928), who did his greatest work during the period, Anthony Trollope (1815–1882), Mrs. Humphry Ward (1851–1920), George Moore (1852–1933), and George Gissing (1857–1903).

To these may be added a host of second and third choices of names still represented on our shelves, including Charles Lever, Charles Kingsley, George

Borrow, Charles Reade, R. D. Blackmore, Sir Walter Besant, J. H. Shorthouse, Wilkie Collins, George MacDonald, Theodore Watts-Dunton, and even Miss Braddon and Mrs. Henry Wood.

*Readings*

Stopford Brooke, ch. 9
Compton-Rickett, ch. 6
Oxford Book of English Verse, pp. 745–1058
Oxford Book of English Prose, pp. 641–885

*Knowledge Tests*

1. What differences do you see in the writings of Dickens and Thackeray?

2. Compare the styles of Robert Browning and Tennyson in two poems known to you.

3. Write an essay on any prose work you have read belonging to this period.

4. What is a sonnet? Who in this period wrote some remarkable ones?

5. Write notes on the work of the Brontë sisters.

6. List examples of the works of Thomas Hardy, Mrs. Gaskell, Robert Louis Stevenson, George Borrow, Thomas Carlyle, and John Ruskin.

# CHAPTER TEN

## ELEMENTARY ENGLISH LITERARY HISTORY

### II.—General Modern Literary Knowledge

THIS part of the syllabus is more difficult than the first, because the student is to a large extent thrown back on his own knowledge and conclusions, and even prejudices. Since 1900, where our closer study of English literary history stopped, the number of writers who have sprung into being has become so great, that even those of us who have worked in libraries for the whole thirty odd years, watching the rise and fall of many of them, would find it hard to make a list of, say, thirty, who show real signs of securing permanent places in the annals of English literature.

There are four textbooks for this post-Victorian period, to all of which the student should have access. They are:

ARTHUR COMPTON-RICKETT: *Primer of English Literature* (Nelson, 1925), which we have used in the last chapter. Chapter seven provides a useful introduction to the large number of modern writers who clamour to be considered as potential figures in future English literary

history. This should be read before anything else. As an indication of the general agreement we find with Dr. Compton-Rickett's selection, he starts off by giving four "leading spirits of the new era": Rudyard Kipling (b. 1865), George Bernard Shaw (b. 1856), Herbert George Wells (b. 1866), and G. K. Chesterton (b. 1874). To these, one would wish to make two additions only: Sir J. M. Barrie (b. 1860) and John Galsworthy (1869–1933).

The next book, and one that should be used regularly as a reference book is:

MANLY AND RICKERT: *Contemporary British Literature* (Harrap). Especially is this true of the greater part of it, which comprises a list of some 229 contemporary writers, with brief biographical data, suggestions for reading, reading lists, a bibliography of works, and references to critical articles. Obviously, a first year library assistant can have intimate knowledge of only a fraction of this large number. The five chapters which open the book may be read with profit, dealing, as some of them do, with: the new drama, the new novel, the new poetry, and belles-lettres respectively.

A very readable book, and one that has a great advantage in that it makes some attempt to concentrate on a relatively small selection of the more important figures, is:

J. W. CUNLIFFE: *English Literature during the Last Half-Century* (Macmillan, 1923).

Lastly, there is:

A. C. WARD: *Twentieth Century Literature: the age of interrogation*, 1901–1925 (Methuen, 1928), which covers similar ground to Cunliffe, but makes a rather wider selection. In some cases, at least, he is perfectly justified in doing so. He has not forgotten, for instance, such outstanding women novelists as: Sheila Kaye-Smith, May Sinclair, Rose Macaulay, Dorothy Richardson, and Virginia Woolf.

In the following lists, all that has been attempted is to make a selection of twentieth-century writers who have commanded attention over a period of several years. They are by no means exhaustive, and some writers who have been omitted may have as great, or even greater claims for inclusion. But certainly all of them are names that every assistant will meet with during a first year's work. To each, the title of a typical work has been added, not necessarily the best one, but the one with which most of us associate the author.

## THE MEN NOVELISTS

It is nearly impossible to select a reasonable number of men novelists whose names bid fair to go down to posterity with any degree of certainty. But the following have had, and many still are having, a wide following during their lifetimes. Of all the names given, seven may become permanent—perhaps. Some of them have also made reputations for themselves in other branches of literature, but are classified here as their sphere of main interest.

ALDINGTON, RICHARD, b. 1892. Also poems and criticisms. *Death of a Hero.* 1929.

BARING, MAURICE, b. 1874. Also plays, poems, etc. *C.* 1924.

BENNETT, ARNOLD, 1867–1931. Also plays. *Clayhanger.* 1910, (v. 1 of a trilogy). *Milestones:* a play (with E. Knoblock). 1912. Cunliffe, ch. 13; Ward, pp. 18–26.

BERESFORD, J. D., b. 1873. *Early History of Jacob Stahl.* 1911 (v. 1 of a trilogy).

CANNAN, GILBERT, b. 1884. And some plays and criticism. *Round the Corner.* 1913. Cunliffe, pp. 315–318.

CONRAD, JOSEPH, 1857–1924. And some plays, critical studies, etc. *Nigger of the Narcissus.* 1898. Cunliffe, ch. 10; Ward, pp. 33–43.

COPPARD, A. E., b. 1878. *Pink Furniture.* 1930.

DOUGLAS, NORMAN, b. 1868. And some travel. *South Wind.* 1917.

FORSTER, E. M., b. 1879. *Passage to India.* 1924. Ward, p. 52.

GALSWORTHY, JOHN, 1867–1933. Equally famous as a dramatist. *The Forsyte Saga.* 1922. *The Skin Game* (a play). 1920. Cunliffe, ch. 12; Ward, pp. 26–33, 71–76.

HEWLETT, MAURICE, 1861–1923. And some essays and poems. *The Forest Lovers.* 1898. Ward, pp. 179–180.

HUXLEY, ALDOUS, b. 1894. Equally known as a poet, essayist, etc. *Point Counter Point.* 1928.

JACOBS, W. W., b. 1863. And some plays. *Many Cargoes.* 1896.

JEROME, J. K., 1859–1927. And some plays and

essays. *Three Men in a Boat.* 1889. *Passing of the Third Floor Back* (a play). 1907.

JOYCE, JAMES, b. 1882. *Ulysses.* 1922. Ward, pp. 50–51.

KIPLING, RUDYARD, b. 1865. Equally famous as a poet. *The Jungle Book.* 1894. *Barrack Room Ballads.* 1892. *Kim.* 1901. Cunliffe, ch. 9; Ward, pp. 106–109.

LAWRENCE, D. H., 1885–1930. Also fine poems, plays, essays, etc. *Sons and Lovers.* 1913. Cunliffe, pp. 322–330.

MACKENZIE, COMPTON, b. 1883. And some plays and poems. *Sinister Street,* 2 v. 1913–1914. *Sylvia Scarlett.* 1918. *Sylvia and Michael.* 1919. Cunliffe, pp. 318–322.

MAUGHAM, SOMERSET, b. 1874. Possibly more famous as a dramatist. *Of Human Bondage.* 1915. *Our Betters* (a play). 1923. Ward, pp. 102–103.

MERRICK, LEONARD, b. 1864. *Conrad in Quest of his Youth.* 1903.

MOTTRAM, R. H., b. 1883. *The Spanish Farm.* 1924.

O'FLAHERTY, LIAM, b. 1896. *Mr. Gilhooley.* 1926.

PHILLPOTTS, EDEN, b. 1862. And some poems and plays. *The River.* 1902. *The Farmer's Wife* (a play). 1916.

POWYS, T. F., b. 1875. *Mr. Tasker's Gods.* 1925.

PRIESTLEY, J. B., b. 1894. Also criticisms and essays. *The Good Companions.* 1929.

SWINNERTON, F. A., b. 1884. Also essays. *Nocturne.* 1917.

VACHELL, H. A., b. 1861. And some important plays. *The Hill.* 1905. *Quinney's.* 1914.

WALPOLE, HUGH, b. 1884. And some criticism.

*Rogue Herries.* 1930. *Jeremy.* 1919. Cunliffe, pp. 310–315.

WAUGH, ALEC, b. 1898. Also poems, essays, etc. *Loom of Youth.* 1917.

WELLS, H. G., b. 1866. And on almost every other subject. *Kipps : the story of a simple soul.* 1905.

YOUNG, F. BRETT-, b. 1884. *Portrait of Clare.* 1927.

*Knowledge Tests*

1. Make a list of five modern men novelists whose work in your opinion has promise of permanence.

2. Write a note on Galsworthy's *Forsyte Saga.*

3. What have you read by Rudyard Kipling, and what impression did you get from it ?

4. Who wrote the following, and to what class of literature does each belong : *The Seven Seas, The Cathedral, Anna of the Five Towns, Howard's End, The Circle, The Outline of History, The Plumed Serpent* ?

5. In what way does the post-war novel differ from that of the nineteenth century ?

## SOME WOMEN WRITERS

If any doubt that the twentieth century has been that of the emancipation of women, let him reflect on the number of women writers who have come to the fore, of whom the following are a few of the more outstanding :

BENSON, STELLA, 1892–1933. Wrote novels, some poetry, and travel. *Tobit Transplanted.* 1930.

DANE, CLEMENCE. Novels and plays, especially *Regiment of Women.* 1917. And her plays *Will*

*Shakespeare.* 1921. *A Bill of Divorcement.* 1921. Ward, pp. 100–101.

DELAFIELD, E. M., b. 1890. Novels. *Diary of a Provincial Lady.* 1930.

GREGORY, LADY, 1852–1932. Irish plays, some folklore, and biography. *Seven Short Plays.* 1909. Ward, pp. 78, 80, 82; Cunliffe, p. 258 *et passim.*

JAMESON, STORM, b. 1897. *The Lovely Ship.* 1927.

KAYE-SMITH, SHEILA. Novels of Sussex and some poems, etc. *Sussex Gorse.* 1916. Ward, pp. 47–48.

KENNEDY, MARGARET, b. 1896. Novels. *Constant Nymph.* 1924.

MACAULAY, ROSE. Novels and some poems. *Told by an Idiot.* 1923. Ward, pp. 48–49.

MANSFIELD, KATHERINE, 1889–1923. Short stories and poems. *The Garden Party.* 1922.

MEYNELL, ALICE, 1850–1922. Poems and some essays. *Poems.* 1923. Ward, pp. 178–179.

MILLIN, SARAH G., b. 1889. Novels. *God's Stepchildren.* 1924.

RICHARDSON, DOROTHY. Sequence novels. *Pointed Roofs.* 1915. Ward, pp. 50–52.

ROYDE-SMITH, NAOMI. Novels and plays. *The Tortoiseshell Cat.* 1925.

SACKVILLE-WEST, VICTORIA, b. 1892. Novels and poems. *The Land* (a poem). 1926. *The Edwardians.* 1930.

SINCLAIR, MAY, b. 1879. Novels. *The Three Sisters.* 1914. Ward, pp. 45–47.

SITWELL, EDITH, b. 1887. Poems. *Rustic Elegies.* 1927. Ward, pp. 156–158.

THOMPSON, SYLVIA, b. 1902. Novels. *Hounds of Spring.* 1926.

UNDERHILL, EVELYN, b. 1875. Poems and works on mysticism. *Concerning the Inner Life.* 1926.

WEBB, MARY, 1883–1927. Novels. *Precious Bane.* 1924.

WEST, REBECCA, b. 1892. Novels and some criticism. *The Judge.* 1922.

WOOLF, VIRGINIA, b. 1882. Novels and some criticism. *Orlando.* 1928.

### *Knowledge Tests*

1. What common likenesses do you see in the writings of Sheila Kaye-Smith and Thomas Hardy ?

2. Name two women poets of the twentieth century.

3. Name six works known to you by modern women writers.

4. What have present-day women writers contributed to dramatic literature ?

## SOME DRAMATISTS

Most of the outstanding figures are equally known as novelists, poets, or essayists. Similarly several included elsewhere are well known as dramatists, e.g., Somerset Maugham.

BARRIE, *Sir* J. M., b. 1860. And novels. The creator of Peter Pan. *The Little Minister.* 1891. *Admirable Crichton.* 1902. Cunliffe, ch. 8 ; Ward, pp. 91–16.

COWARD, NOEL, b. 1899. Author of *Cavalcade. Hay Fever.* 1925. Ward, pp. 101–103.

DRINKWATER, JOHN, b. 1882. And poems, critical studies, etc. *Abraham Lincoln.* 1918.

DUKES, ASHLEY, b. 1885. And dramatic criticism. *Man with a Load of Mischief.* 1924.

DUNSANY, *Lord*, b. 1878. Of the Irish school of dramatists. And novels. *Five Plays.* 1914.

ERVINE, ST. JOHN, b. 1883. Irish. Also novels and criticisms. *Jane Clegg.* 1911.

GRANVILLE-BARKER, HARLEY, b. 1877. *Three Plays.* 1909. Ward, pp. 87–88.

JONES, HENRY A., 1851–1929. *The Liars.* 1897.

MILNE, A. A., b. 1882. Also poems, novels, and essays. Creator of Winnie-the-Pooh. *The Fourth Wall.* 1928. And, of course, *Winnie-the-Pooh.* 1926.

PINERO, *Sir* ARTHUR, b. 1855. *The Second Mrs. Tanqueray.* 1893. Ward, pp. 56–57.

ROBINSON, LENNOX, b. 1886. Of the Irish School. And one or two novels. *The White-Headed Boy.* 1920. Ward, pp. 82–83.

SHAW, G. BERNARD, b. 1856. And every other branch of literature. *Man and Superman.* 1903. *Saint Joan.* 1923. Cunliffe, ch. 7; Ward, pp. 58–70.

SYNGE, J. M., 1871–1909. Of the Irish School. *Playboy of the Western World.* 1907. Cunliffe, pp. 257–263; Ward, pp. 80–82.

*Knowledge Tests*

1. Write an essay on the work of G. Bernard Shaw, with special reference to his contribution to the drama.

2. Evaluate the position of Barrie in modern literature.

3. Discuss the trend of the modern drama as illustrated by any play you have seen.

4. What do you know about the Irish dramatic school?

## ESSAYISTS, CRITICS, ETC.

The number of modern writers in these fields is legion. A rigorous policy of exclusion has had to be exercised, but these may be taken as typical.

BEERBOHM, MAX, b. 1872. Also a caricaturist, and writer of short stories. *Christmas Garland.* 1912. Ward, pp. 164–168.

BELLOC, HILAIRE, b. 1870. And almost every branch of literature, including novels, biography, history, etc. *The Path to Rome.* 1902. Ward, pp. 190–195.

BIRRELL, AUGUSTINE, 1850–1933. *Obiter Dicta.* 1884.

CHESTERTON, G. K., b. 1874. Also novels, plays, and poems. *Alarms and Discursions.* 1910. *Napoleon of Notting Hill* (a novel). 1904. Ward, pp. 129–131.

CUNNINGHAME-GRAHAM, R. B., b. 1852. Also travel and novels. *Mogreb-el-Acksa:* journey in Morocco. 1898.

DICKINSON, G. LOWES, 1862–1932. Also philosophy. *Letters from John Chinaman.* 1901.

DOUGHTY, C. M., 1843–1926. Travel and poems. *Travels in Arabia Deserta.* 1888.

ELLIS, HAVELOCK, b. 1859. Also philosophy. *The Dance of Life.* 1923.

GOSSE, *Sir* EDMUND, 1849–1928. And some poems. *Some Diversions of a Man of Letters.* 1919.

GUEDALLA, PHILIP, b. 1889. Also history, biography, etc. *Missing Muse.* 1929.

HUDSON, W. H., 1841–1922. Novels, nature study, etc. *Green Mansions.* 1904. Ward, pp. 184–189.

INGE, *Dean*, b. 1860. Philosophy, religion, and general subjects. *Studies of English Mystics.* 1906.

LAWRENCE, T. E., b. 1888. Travel. *Revolt in the Desert.* 1927.

LUCAS, E. V., b. 1868. Has been called the " modern Lamb." Also novels, etc. *The Open Road.* 1899. Ward, pp. 168–174.

LYND, ROBERT, b. 1879. *The Pleasures of Ignorance.* 1921.

MONTAGUE, C. E., 1867–1928. Also novels. *A Hind Let Loose.* 1910. *The Right Place.* 1924.

MURRAY, *Sir* GILBERT, b. 1866. Known for his verse translations of Greek plays. *Religio Grammatici.* 1918.

MURRY, J. M., b. 1889. Also poems, etc. *Discoveries: essays in literary criticism.* 1924.

NICHOLS, BEVERLEY, b. 1899. *Down the Garden Path.* 1932.

NICOLSON, *Hon.* HAROLD, b. 1886. Also some novels, biography, etc. *Byron, the last journey.* 1924.

QUILLER-COUCH, *Sir* ARTHUR, *Q.*, b. 1863. Also novels, etc. *Studies in Literature.* 1918.

RUSSELL, BERTRAND, b. 1872. Also philosophy, sociology, etc. *What I Believe.* 1925.

SQUIRE, *Sir* J. C., b. 1884. Also poems, biography, etc. *Collected Parodies.* 1921.

STRACHEY, LYTTON, 1880–1932. Also biography. *Eminent Victorians.* 1918. Ward, pp. 196–201.

TOMLINSON, H. M., b. 1873. Also some novels. *The Sea and the Jungle.* 1912.

*Knowledge Tests*

1. What do you know of the work of G. K. Chesterton ?

2. Name any writer in the list who illustrates " the new biography." What are its features ?

3. Write notes on three books known to you, by any of these authors.

## POETS

It would be true to say that the history and aspirations of a nation are written in its poetry. Certainly the history of England during the past thirty years will be found mirrored in the poetry of those whose names follow :

ABERCROMBIE, LASCELLES, b. 1881. Also criticisms and some plays. *The Sale of St. Thomas.* 1911. *The Idea of Great Poetry.* 1925. *Emblems of Love.* 1912. Cunliffe, pp. 298–300.

BINYON, LAURENCE, b. 1869. Also criticism and art. *The Anvil, and Other Poems.* 1916.

BLUNDEN, EDMUND, b. 1896. And some travel. *Retreat.* 1928. Ward, pp. 152–153.

BOTTOMLEY, GORDON, b. 1874. And plays. *Poems of Thirty Years.* 1925.

BRIDGES, ROBERT, 1844–1930. Also plays and criticisms. *Shorter Poems.* 1890–1894. *The Testament of Beauty.* 1929.

BROOKE, RUPERT, 1887–1915. *Collected Poems.* 1918. Cunliffe, pp. 282–288 ; Ward, pp. 131–134.

DAVIES, W. H., b. 1871. Also autobiographical volumes. *The True Traveller.* 1912. Cunliffe, pp. 294–298 ; Ward, pp. 148–151.

DE LA MARE, WALTER, b. 1873. Also novels, etc. *Ding Dong Bell.* 1924. Ward, pp. 145–147.

ELIOT, T. S., b. 1888. *Ash Wednesday.* 1930.

FLECKER, J. E., 1884–1915. And some plays. *Hassan.* 1922. Ward, pp. 144–145.

FREEMAN, JOHN, 1880–1929. Also novels and criticisms. *Memories of Childhood.* 1918.

GIBSON, W. W., b. 1878. Also plays. *Daily Bread.* 1910. Cunliffe, pp. 288–293 ; Ward, pp. 142–143.

GOULD, GERALD, b. 1885. Also criticisms. *The Journey.* 1920.

GRAVES, ROBERT, b. 1895. Also criticisms. *Fairies and Fusiliers.* 1917. Ward, pp. 152–156.

HARDY, THOMAS, 1840–1928. Also novels and plays. *Late Lyrics and Earlier.* 1922. Ward, pp. 112–125.

HOUSMAN, A. E., b. 1859. *A Shropshire Lad.* 1896. Ward, pp. 111–112.

HOUSMAN, LAURENCE, b. 1865. Also plays and novels. *Little Plays of St. Francis.* 1922.

MASEFIELD, JOHN, b. 1874. Also novels, plays, essays, etc. *Reynard the Fox.* 1919. Cunliffe, pp. 273–281 ; Ward, pp. 127–129.

NEWBOLT, *Sir* HENRY, b. 1862. Also criticisms, novels, etc. *Admirals All.* 1897.

NOYES, ALFRED, b. 1880. Also a few novels, criticisms, etc. *The Torch Bearers.* 1922–1930. Ward, pp. 125–127.

SASSOON, SIEGFRIED, b. 1886. *Collected War Poems.* 1919. Ward, p. 136.

SHANKS, EDWARD, b. 1892. Also criticisms and some novels. *Loom.* 1921.

SITWELL, OSBERT, b. 1892. Also novels, essays, etc. *Out of the Flame.* 1923.

SITWELL, SACHEVERELL, b. 1900. Also essays. *The Thirteenth Cæsar.* 1924. Ward, pp. 156–159.

STEPHENS, JAMES, b. 1882. Also novels. *The Hill of Vision.* 1912. *The Crock of Gold* (a novel). 1912. Ward, pp. 141–142.

WOLFE, HUMBERT, b. 1885. *Requiem.* 1927.

YEATS, W. B., b. 1865. Also plays, essays, etc. *Wind among the Reeds.* 1899. Cunliffe, pp. 251–257; Ward, pp. 77–80.

*Knowledge Tests*

1. Two poets laureate are named in this list. Who are they, and how do they compare?
2. What are the features of the work of the Sitwell family?
3. Describe any poem of the present day that you have read.
4. What do we understand by the "War Poets"? Name several of them.

## A NOTE ON AMERICAN LITERATURE

Nothing has been said about American literature, because it is no longer specifically mentioned in the Elementary syllabus. But the literatures of the English-speaking peoples are so inseparably bound up, that a reading of some such little book as Stanley T. Williams' *American Literature* (Lippin-

cott), will not be without value. Many of the names are so familiar that it may come as a surprise to some beginners to learn that they are anything but English. For example, among the poets: Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, 1807–1882; John Greenleaf Whittier, 1807–1892; Walt Whitman, 1819–1892. Among essayists and miscellaneous writers: Ralph Waldo Emerson, 1803–1882; Oliver Wendell Holmes, 1809–1894; Washington Irving, 1783–1859; James Russell Lowell, 1819–1891; Edgar Allan Poe, 1809–1849; Henry David Thoreau, 1817–1862. Novelists of the past include many household names, such as: James Lane Allen, 1849–1925; Samuel Clemens, better known as Mark Twain, 1835–1910; James Fennimore Cooper, 1789–1851; Joseph Chandler Harris, 1848–1881; Francis Bret Harte, 1839–1902; Nathaniel Hawthorne, 1804–1864; Henry James, 1843–1916; Jack London, 1876–1916; Hermann Melville, 1819–1891; William Sydney Porter, or O. Henry as we know him, 1867–1910; and Harriet Beecher-Stowe, 1811–1896.

Among American writers known in England to-day just as well as those of our own country, we need only mention such names as Dorothy Canfield, Willa Cather, Winston Churchill, Theodore Dreiser, Susan Ertz, William Faulkner, Ellen Glasgow, Joseph Hergesheimer, Mary Johnston, Eugene O'Neill, Sinclair Lewis, Upton Sinclair, Booth Tarkington, Edith Wharton, and Thornton Wilder, to show how international the greater writers of the world really are.

## CHAPTER ELEVEN

# THE ELEMENTS OF THE DECIMAL CLASSIFICATION
# GENERAL RULES FOR CLASSIFYING

THE examination syllabus implies that by elementary classification is meant an acquaintance with the elements of the Decimal classification, and with the general rules for classifying books. But to understand the elements, and to be able to apply the rules intelligently, there must be some clear apprehension of what classification is, and of the principles on which a classification for books is constructed.

First, then, what is classification ? Simply defined, it is the bringing together of things that have some common likenesses, the consequent separation of those that lack them, and, if our classification is to have what is called a logical order, the assembling of the groups so formed in proper relationship to those things with which they have the greatest affinities.

Some may ask why we classify books at all. Every library has a subject catalogue of one kind or another, which makes it possible to ascertain if the library has a book on chemistry or any other subject. This is true, but it is easy to see how inconvenient it

must become if, every time a reader wants to see the books we have on chemistry in all its ramifications, he, or the librarian, has to go to many places on the shelves before it is possible to get any sort of conspectus of the resources available.

Let us hasten to say that we can have a modicum of classification without applying fully this law of likeness and unlikeness, and within limits the result would be a simple, and to a certain extent, practical, classification. For instance, we could put together all the books on drawing, engraving, painting, photography, architecture, and sculpture, and arrange them in our catalogue and on our shelves under the letters D, E, P, A, and S, respectively. But as experience shows that the person who is interested in drawing is likely also to be interested in painting and sculpture, how much more useful will our classification be if we bring these subjects together into one class, and so secure what we call a logical order.

But classification is a process that is as common to our everyday life as it is to the books on our shelves, or to any other series of objects we may choose to arrange by its laws. It has been said, indeed, that without classification it would be impossible to lead ordered lives at all, whether as individuals or as members of communities. To those who have not studied the subject, this may come as a surprise. But if you go over the things you have done to-day as far as you can remember them, you will see how true it is. Indeed, even those things you no longer remember are equally classified, in that you have, quite unconsciously,

relegated them to a group of things regarded as not worth retaining in the mind.

Coming, then, with some slight understanding of what we mean by classification in general, to the elements of the Decimal classification, by which is meant for our present purpose the *Decimal Classification and Relative Index for Libraries*, compiled, and since vastly elaborated, by the late Melvil Dewey (1851–1931), an American librarian who did more than any single man to bring order out of the chaos that formerly existed on our library shelves.

We say this deliberately because there is to-day a tendency on the part of a few librarians to decry the use and value of classification and to adopt what they call "display," or exhibitions of books arranged to catch the eye of the casual reader. No modern librarian should be ignorant of the value of exhibitions and displays, but they can never supersede or discount the value of exact shelf classification.

When the first edition of Dewey's scheme appeared in 1876, it was a modest work of 30 pages. Now, in its thirteenth edition, published in 1932, it has 1625 pages. This remarkable growth is in itself proof that the librarian's appreciation of what we call logical classification has grown tremendously during the past sixty years or so.

Although the syllabus suggests that at this stage of your career you need only know the elements of Dewey's classification, it may not be out of place to say that there are three other schemes in use to-day, none of them to anything like the same extent, but nevertheless, important.

They are: *The Expansive Classification*, by the late Charles Amni Cutter (1837–1903), likewise an American librarian, who will be remembered for his *Rules for a Dictionary Catalog*. *The Subject Classification*, by the late James Duff Brown (1862–1914), a British librarian whom some of the older ones among us still regard as the greatest British public librarian who ever lived.

The fourth scheme, likewise American in its origin, is the *Library of Congress Classification*, which has been in course of compilation by experts since 1900. It has many unusual features, is very detailed, and, as might be supposed, is intended primarily for application to the Library of Congress at Washington, which is to America what the British Museum Library is to Great Britain. In the opinion of many, it is a scheme that is likely to play a great part in the future classification of libraries, especially large ones, and those of a special character.

These four schemes, with a fifth, derived from Dewey, and known as the *Classification Décimale* of the Institut International de Bibliographie, but which need not concern us at present, are the chief modern book classifications, and of them, the future of library classification seems to lie with Dewey in ordinary municipal libraries, and with the Congress scheme in very large general, and in many specialised libraries.

You may ask why the Decimal classification has been singled out for consideration, when perhaps your own library is classified by Brown's *Subject Classification* or by some other scheme. The answer

is that it is used in more British libraries than any other scheme, and in most American ones.

First then, let us ask ourselves, what do we mean by Decimal classification? Most of those who are concerned with the Elementary Examination will not have left their schooldays so far behind that they will not be able easily to recall and to define what is meant by the decimal system, and it is therefore unnecessary to explain it here.

A decimal book classification is an application of this principle, and to make it practicable, the classification is equipped with a decimal notation, which may be defined as a symbol indicative of the subject scheduled. We call it an auxiliary to classification, but actually, it is a vital part of any practical classification designed for use in libraries.

Turning to Dewey, we find that he has begun by dividing the sum total of human knowledge into ten groups, or main classes as he calls them. It would be more exact to say that he has divided it into nine, but because there are some books that do not confine themselves to a single subject, either broad or specific, he has reserved a tenth part—or class, for those books, and called it General Works.

The main classes of his scheme are :

000 *General Works*. Includes books about many subjects, such as encyclopædias, newpapers, and general magazines, as well as those about bibliography, i.e., books about books, library economy, or the provision and administration of libraries, and actual examples of rare books, manuscripts, precious bindings, and such-like.

100 *Philosophy.* The class that deals with the thinking or reasoning powers of man. Contains books about the construction of the mind and the methods by which it works, with the imagination, the emotions, and the senses, and with the rules which the mind makes to govern our reasoning and our conduct.

200 *Religion.* Contains books about God, natural and revealed religion, and other religions than the Christian one.

300 *Sociology.* Deals with people in communities and their relations with one another. Contains books on the state and the units which constitute it, on education, government, economics, laws, institutions, popular customs, etc.

400 *Philology.* Embraces all those books which trace the history and structure of words, and the methods of learning and using languages.

500 *Natural Science.* Includes all that man knows about the world he lives in and the universe about him, their laws, history, and state. We therefore find here books on mathematics, which are a rigid statement of the laws of nature, on astronomy, physics, chemistry, geology, and natural history.

600 *Useful Arts.* Books about the trades and the professions, and every art that is useful to man, such as farming, building, engineering, domestic economy, and medicine.

700 *Fine and Recreative Arts.* Includes those things

meant to give pleasure and rest to the mind of man. They range from architecture and sculpture to painting and music, and from gardening to horse racing.

800 *Literature.* The application of language as a fine art and a means of enjoyment. Includes all that we call pure literature, such as poetry, plays, and novels, as distinct from that which is merely informative.

900 *History, Biography, and Geography.* A very wide class covering the story of man in nations, his rise, progress and decline, geography and records of travels, and the history of individuals called biography.

With the exceptions of a part of the General Works class, and of most of the Literature class, the scheme thus begins to group, or classify, books by the subjects with which they deal, as distinct from the forms in which they are cast, whether encyclopædic, poetic, or dramatic. Hence the rule, classify first by topic, and then by form, except in the form classes, where the form takes precedence over the subject.

As this is a decimal classification, Dewey proceeds to divide each of his main classes into ten divisions, so increasing the number of the groups to a hundred, into one or other of which it should be possible to put any book that may come our way.

For example, he takes his Class 5, Natural Science, and creates ten main divisions, the first being of a general nature, as was his first main class. These divisions are :

500–509 General Science
510–519 Mathematics
520–529 Astronomy
530–539 Physics
540–549 Chemistry
550–559 Geology
560–569 Palæontology (Fossils)
570–579 Biology
580–589 Botany
590–599 Zoology

Each of these is then further grouped into ten sections, with the result that over the whole scheme we now have the choice of a thousand heads, or ten classes multiplied into a hundred divisions, multiplied into a thousand sections.

The advantage of this further division is obvious. Instead of having to put all our books on arithmetic, algebra, euclid, trigonometry, etc., into a single group marked 510, we can separate them further by their degrees of likeness and unlikeness, and get this result :

510 Mathematics in general
511 Arithmetic
512 Algebra
513 Geometry
514 Trigonometry
515 Descriptive geometry and projections
516 Analytic geometry
517 Calculus
518 (left blank)
519 Probabilities

Nor are we obliged to stop here, and if our library

is fairly large, say anything above 5000 volumes, we shall be wise to proceed further to apply this simple method of progression, by taking, say, our books on arithmetic, and arranging them into a yet closer order of affinity, by applying the further notation :

511·1 Systems of arithmetic
511·2 Notation and numeration. Fundamental rules. Abacus
511·3 Prime numbers
511·4 Fractions
511·5 Analysis. Permutation and Combination
511·6 Proportion and Progression
511·7 Involution and Evolution
511·8 Mercantile Rules. Interest. Alligation. Mensuration. Gauging
511·9 Problems and Tables

If you look at the tables or schedules of the latest edition of Dewey's classification, you will see that he has carried this idea to lengths that will almost terrify you in your early days, but which you will appreciate better as you learn more of the value of what is called close classification.

One of the rules of classification is that we shall classify first by topic or subject, and then by form if that is necessary. To enable this to be done, Dewey has provided a series of what are called common form sub-divisions. These are largely replicas of the main divisions of the General class, and comprise :

01 Theories
02 Outlines. Compends
03 Dictionaries. Encyclopædias

04 Essays. Addresses. Lectures
05 Periodicals
06 Societies
07 Study and Teaching
08 Polygraphy
09 History

These numbers may be applied to almost any part of the scheme, except the History class, where similar numbers are often reserved for periods. 942·03 for instance represents a book on Plantagenet England and not a dictionary of English history. Where a common form sub-division is applied to a general head, which ends with a cipher, the 0 is omitted. For instance, a dictionary of chemistry would be marked 540·3, but a dictionary of inorganic chemistry is 546·03.

Now that we understand a little about classification and its value, and something about the decimal scheme of Dewey, we may proceed to examine the practical rules for classifying books. These have been formulated and expounded by W. C. Berwick Sayers in his books on classification, to the author of which, every student and teacher of classification is indebted. Here then are the rules one by one :

(1) Classify a book by its subject, except in the form classes.

Kinglake's *Invasion of the Crimea* goes in history, but Berkeley's *The Lady with a Lamp,* being a play, goes in the form class Literature, and not with any subject.

(2) Classify at the most specific head available. Thus only can we ensure the full benefits of classification.

Stubbs' *The Story of Cambridge* goes at 942·59, not at 942, or even at 942·5; Stewart's *Recent Advances in Organic Chemistry* goes at 547, and not at 540.

(3) Avoid placings that may be in the nature of criticism or may present your personal views rather than what the author intends. No longer do we classify books like Mrs. Eddy's *Science and Health* with what Dewey at one time called humbugs and quackery, but we put it with books on other churches and sects.

(4) Consider the main tendency or purpose of the book. Frazer's *Belief in Immortality and the Worship of the Dead*, goes at 218, being a comparative study of the subject, and not a definitely christian one like Fosdick's *Assurance of Immortality*, which is 237·2, or Galloway's *Idea of Immortality, its Development and Value*, which is metaphysical, and goes at 128.

(5) When two headings clash, as they often do, decide impartially which is to prevail, and leave the rest to the cataloguer. Marett's *Psychology and Folklore* will be placed at Psychology (150), with an added catalogue entry at Folklore (398).

(6) When a book deals with not more than three branches of a subject, classify at the first, unless one of the others is more fully dealt with. If there are more than three, classify at the general head which embraces

them all. Stewart's and Satterly's *Junior Sound and Light* go at Sound (534), with an added catalogue entry at Light (535).

(7) Have a reason for classifying a book where you do, but let it be one that is likely to have a general appeal. Sanderson's *Library Law* will be used by many more librarians than it will by lawyers. Hence, we have a sufficient reason for placing the history, law, or other view of a subject with the subject.

(8) When a new subject appears, on which books cannot have been previously published, find out by reference to the book itself or to some recognised authority, exactly to what branch of existing knowledge it is most nearly related, and make a new place for it there.

(9) Classify a book where it will be most useful. But this rule must not be used as an excuse for setting aside lightly the others. Coleridge's *Quiet Hours in the Temple* has a definite interest to law students, and goes at 340·7, but Bellot's *The Temple* is solely of interest to sightseers, and goes at 914·21.

(10) When you have had to make a decision likely to affect future placings, make a note of it in your schedules, and index for your guidance and to ensure consistent placings in future.

To these may be added two other very important

rules. Books dealing with a subject geographically should be classified with the subject, as for example books on local plants or animals, local geology, etc., and books in which one subject bears on another should be classified with the subject borne upon. Wolcott's *Personality as a Business Asset* goes with business books and not in philosophy. Books about people are difficult. Common practice is to place those that deal with their lives, and only incidentally with their work, in Biography, otherwise with the subject illustrated.

If the student remembers these rules and applies them, he should have very little difficulty in giving satisfactory placings for 95 per cent of the books with which he will have to deal. For the remaining 5 per cent, the best course is to place them at the head likely to be useful to the type of reader most likely to use the classification.

The classifier should invariably beware of classifying books blindly from their title-pages, though in a large number of cases the title of a book will clearly and truthfully declare the subject. This is especially important when using Dewey, where a subject may sometimes go in two, or even three, different classes, according to the aspect from which it has been written. For instance, a book called *Coal* might go in political economy, in geology, or in mining engineering.

If the subject and its standpoint are not indisputably indicated by the title, a study of the contents, preface, or introduction, will generally lead to a satisfactory decision. Having chosen a place, one should ask whether the book really

belongs to the main division or even main class from which the selected heading modulates.

The most specific head should be chosen, but at the same time care must be taken not to over-classify, or to divide geographically when the schedules do not permit.

Finally, it has been so drilled into classifiers that they must not classify by the index, that there is a danger of this important auxiliary being overlooked altogether. My advice to classifiers is, choose your heading, and then, always, study the index to see whether you have overlooked the possibility of some other, and maybe, better head.

The Decimal classification is not a perfect classification by any means. The perfect classification, like a good many other things, has yet to be invented. But its universal popularity and remarkable growth suggest that it is at least a scheme of great practical value, and one that may be used equally well in large or small libraries.

It embraces in a convenient way all branches of knowledge, and can provide places for new subjects without interfering with existing ones, by the addition of a new number. Its notation fulfils the requirements of simplicity, flexibility and reasonable brevity, and it has a fair share of mnemonic features, though some of these should not be followed too blindly. The terms used throughout are clear and perfectly definite. Its relative index is very full, showing, as it does, every "relative" standpoint from which a subject may be treated, and including synonyms for terms, variant forms of names, etc.

The criticisms commonly levelled against the

scheme are that it does not follow an evolutionary order, although many picturesque but purely imaginative attempts have been made to show that it does. But it is none the less practical despite the lack of this much overstressed criterion. The other, and admittedly more valid criticism, is that knowledge does not invariably and conveniently divide itself into groups of ten, and that it is therefore difficult to compress some classes into ten divisions. This is seen for example in the last division of the religion, language, and literature classes, where large numbers of quite important subjects have had to be crowded in. But despite these and any other minor objections, there can be little doubt but that the advantages of Decimal classification, as exemplified in Dewey's scheme, are many more than the disadvantages.

We have tried in this chapter to explain more simply than in the recognised textbooks some of the main points about Dewey's classification, and how to apply the general rules for classifying. We have not touched more than incidentally on the logical or theoretical bases, partly because they are not required here, and partly because it is the main task of a librarian to become a capable classifier of current and past knowledge as it has been recorded in books. For that reason we conclude the chapter with a little exercise in what we may call the mechanics of classification, by taking a few imaginary books and dealing with them from this point of view.

1. *England Through the Centuries.* This deals with a past period, and therefore must be what we call history, which at once fixes it to class 9. Being

about England in general, and not about a specific period, it must go at 942.

2. *The Flowers of Switzerland.* This book has a double interest. Everybody who goes to Switzerland manifests some interest in its Alpine flowers, and we might be tempted therefore to classify it with books of a descriptive character at 914·94. But it has a definitely subjectival interest besides, and remembering our rule that books dealing with a subject geographically go with the subject, we shall select the botany class, and as it is limited to a locality we shall not put it at the general head for "Flowers," but at that reserved for local floras at 581·9494.

3. *Rambling through Sussex.* It is easy to see that here is a book for the Geography class, because it will present a picture of Sussex as it is to-day. We accordingly place it at the specific head for books on that county, at 914·225.

4. *Flanders Poppies, and Other Poems of the Great War.* This is likely to interest two classes of people; whose who went through the War in Flanders, and those who read poetry for its own sake. But we must classify it by its literary form, this being of greater importance than the subject with which the poems deal. It goes therefore at 821·91.

5. *Edwardian England.* This, too, has a double interest. It may tell us something about the life of the king, but an examination of the contents would show us that its main interest is historical, and we should therefore classify it at 942·082, and not at 923·1, as we might such a book as *The Personal Life of King Edward VII.*

### *Readings*

Sayers' *Introduction to Library Classification.* The chapters which explain the meaning and purpose of book classification, and those dealing with Decimal classification, the rules and methods of practical classification, and on the parts of a bibliographical classification.

Sayers' *Grammar of Classification.* The sections dealing with bibliographical classification and with the application of classification.

### *Knowledge Tests*

1. What do we mean by logical order in book classification ? Give examples of a logical and of a non-logical order.

2. Define the terms : biology, philosophy, archæology, palæontology, political economy, chemical technology, and psychology.

3. Enumerate the main classes of Dewey, and give an example of a book belonging to each.

4. Discuss and illustrate the rule that directs us to classify first by topic and then by form.

5. What are the common form sub-divisions of Dewey ? Show how they are used.

6. What general rules for classifying would you apply to books with the following titles ?

England in the Reign of Elizabeth.
A Dictionary of Musical Terms.
A Guide to Modern Library Architecture.
Abraham Lincoln : a Play.
Birds of the Scottish Highlands.

An Introduction to Heat, Light, and Sound.
The Religion of a Spiritualist.

7. Enumerate the main divisions of Dewey's Sociology class. Give the title of a book (real or imaginary) that would go into each of the divisions.

8. What is meant by the statement "where two headings clash, make a decision as to which is to prevail"?

9. Write an essay on the advantages and disadvantages of Decimal classification as exemplified by Dewey's scheme.

## CHAPTER TWELVE

# THE AUTHOR ENTRY IN CATALOGUING

Of all the things that enter closely into library work, cataloguing is one of which most people would imagine they had at least some idea. A catalogue, they would say, is simply a list of something, and as applied to a library, it is a list of the books to be found on its shelves. But a library catalogue must be more than a mere list of books if it is to be of value, not only to the ordinary reader who wants just something to read, but still more so to the serious student.

Everyone is familiar with what a housewife calls a shopping list. In its simplest form it is a scrap of paper, on which is written the names of those things she proposes to buy when she goes on her shopping expedition. Occasionally, some attempt at order and detail are made, by listing in separate groups such things as groceries, fruit and vegetables, stationery and books, personal accessories, etc., and their estimated prices. But nobody in his senses would call even that a catalogue. A catalogue of books, then, must have an order and a certain amount of detail about it to make it of use, either to ourselves or to those for whom it is primarily provided, but who use it all too seldom.

Of the need for some kind of catalogue there can be no question. It is such an obvious necessity if the library is to give good service, that the possibility of doing without one is not even worth discussing. In its ideal form it should tell us :

1. What books the library has by a particular author.
2. What books the library has on a particular subject.
3. Whether the library has a book with a particular title.
4. What books the library has in a given series.

Some catalogues only answer the first question ; others answer only the second ; most answer the first and the second ; and only a few answer completely, the whole of the questions.

A full, or main, catalogue entry, which is usually the author entry, is composed of three parts : *the heading*, consisting of the author's name, *the description of the book*, comprising its full title, the edition, if other than the first, a detail often omitted in such cases as fiction and other forms of pure literature, unless there is a particular reason for giving it, and finally, *the imprint and collation*, which is a statement of the place of publication, publisher's name, date, number of pages, illustrations, and size.

Before offering an explanation of what is included in this entry, some remarks about cataloguing in general will not be out of place. It is not the easy or wholly mechanical task that might be supposed. Indeed, it may be true to say that a good cataloguer is born and not made, and that first-class cataloguers

are few and far between. Nor are "good cataloguers" and "good general library assistants" by any means synonymous terms, but lest the rest of us despair, it should be said that it is possible to make tolerably good ones out of most of the material that is available.

The two essential rules to be observed by those who would learn to catalogue even passing fair are, absolute accuracy, and consistency of practice.

By accuracy is meant the ability to make entries correctly in every detail. It may seem unnecessary to stress this as a first essential, but it is surprising how many so-called cataloguers there are who cannot be relied upon to make even the simplest of catalogue entries with unfailing precision. Authors' names are sometimes misspelled, Christian names or initials are given wrongly, the spelling of the title page is departed from, dates of publication are overlooked, or where they are given in Roman figures, they are mistranslated, wrong information is often given in the collation, i.e., the statement of the number of pages, illustrations, maps, etc., constituting the book, and references or added entries are frequently omitted. To avoid mistakes of this kind, the cataloguer must concentrate on the task he has in hand, and it should be the invariable practice for entries to be checked over after they have been made.

Inconsistency is an even more common fault, and one that may have serious results in rendering the catalogue unreliable. Some of the more frequent inconsistencies include such things as the use of several principles in making entries, sometimes

using a popular term for a heading and at other times a scientific one, entering some noblemen under their family names and others under their titles, entering compound names sometimes under the first part of a name and at other times under the second, using specific subject headings in one place and broader ones in another, and so on.

While one cannot altogether agree with the maxim that it is better to follow a wrong practice consistently, then to adopt a correct one and then apply it inconsistently, there are certainly few things more annoying than an inconsistently compiled catalogue.

There are three forms of catalogue, all more or less commonly found in libraries :

1. *The Author Catalogue.*—Arranged alphabetically by authors' names, with necessary cross-references from names not used as the entry names. A variation of this form is that known as the Name Catalogue, which includes entries for persons written about, in the form of biographies or criticisms.

2. *The Dictionary Catalogue.*—Arranged, as its name suggests, like an ordinary dictionary, in a single alphabet of authors and people written about, subjects, titles (where these are necessary), references, and any other entries that may be needed.

This was at one time the commonest form of catalogue in public libraries, because it was regarded as the simplest for the public to use, an assumption which we are inclined to regard as somewhat of a fallacy. The essential feature of a dictionary catalogue is, that a subject entry shall be made under the most specific head, and that related subjects shall be connected by a series of cross-

references. Nothing could be simpler than for a reader who wanted a book about carnations to turn up that name in the catalogue, and there find entries for the two or three books the library might possess. But as this reader would likewise be interested in books on flowers generally, as well as on such specific kinds as roses, tulips, hyacinths, and others, it is not hard to see that the process of unearthing all the resources is likely to prove tiresome.

3. *The Classified Catalogue.*—Arranged by the subjects with which books deal, in such a way that not only are entries for all books on one subject brought together, but they are brought near to those on related branches of that subject. For instance, whereas in the dictionary catalogue we should find books about lions, tigers, and panthers under the letters L, T, and P, respectively, in the classified catalogue we should find them all close together at the section under zoology reserved for mammals. This logical, or systematic order as it is called, is made possible with the help of a classification scheme, of which the best-known example is Dewey's *Decimal Classification.* No longer is it necessary to hunt for books on flowers in different parts of the catalogue—we shall find them all brought together for our reader's greater convenience.

In order that this form of catalogue may be used intelligently by anyone who is not familiar with the scheme of classification, it must be provided with at least two alphabetical indexes, one of authors, and another of subjects and their synonyms.

Let us examine the second and third forms in

turn, and see how, while producing a similar result in the end, they do it in quite different ways.

Here then is a book which we will catalogue for a dictionary catalogue :

First, the main, or author entry :

Bragg, *Sir* William.

The Universe of light. London, G. Bell & Sons, 1933. xii, 283 pp. 26 *illus.* 23 cm.

Second, the subject entry, which in this case involves a choice between two headings, light and optics. Choosing the everyday term, we get :

LIGHT

Bragg, *Sir* William. The Universe of light. 1933.

But as some users of the catalogue might look under Optics for this and similar books, we must make a reference from that term in the form : Optics. *See* Light.

Further, light is a branch of physics, and this necessitates a further reference, in some such form as :

PHYSICS. For books on specific branches of physics, see under such names as light, mechanics, etc.

If we wished to catalogue this book for a classified catalogue, the principal, or main entry would be precisely the same as the author entry made for the dictionary catalogue. The difference is one of arrangement. Instead of finding its place under the letter B, it is arranged under the subject head with which the book deals, in this case, light. The question now arises, how is one to discover if the library contains a copy of this book, seeing that the

catalogue is not arranged alphabetically? The answer is that we must provide two indexes, one for the person who wants to know what books there are by a particular author, and the other for him who wants to know what books the library has on a particular subject. These are known as the Author and the Subject Index, respectively, and are in some such form as this:

*Author Index*

Bragg, *Sir* William
Universe of light .. 535

*Subject Index*

Light .. .. .. 535
Optics .. .. .. 535

If any apology is needed for this digression from what, in conne ion with the Elementary Examination, is styled *he Author try in Cataloguing*, it is because we want the beginner to have some slightly more complete idea of the kinds f catalogues and of their methods of arrangement than could be got from a study of the author entry alone.

But to come back to what is specifically required in this connexion. The first question that will arise in the mind of the thoughtful student is, why has this particular entry been singled out here? It is because, of all the catalogue entries it is possible to make for a book, including as they may, author, title subject, and series entries, the one thing about a book on which there can be no difference of opinion is the name of its author. Titles are often mis-

construed or hopelessly mutilated by enquirers, the book may have no subject at all, or there may be legitimate difference of opinion as to what it is. But about the name of the author there can be no two opinions whatever. It is definite, unchangeable, and universal in its significance.

If is true that many people forget the name of the author of a book, that others spell his name in curious ways, and that in some cases it is possible to enter an author's works under more than one part or form of his name. But such of these contingencies as it is humanly possible to meet are provided for by means of subsidiary entries or references. By universal consent then, an author entry has come to be regarded as the most important, the principal, or the main entry.

At first, it sounds perfectly easy to make such an entry, but actually, it covers a very wide field. So wide, that the American and British Library Associations have jointly compiled a code of cataloguing rules called *Cataloguing Rules : author and title entries*, more commonly known as the *Anglo-American Code*, which numbers 174 rules, mostly concerned with this problem in one way or another. The beginner will find it profitable to go through the code, in order to get some idea of all that can be implied when we speak of the Author entry. It is unlikely that, at this stage, questions will be set in connexion with the more intricate problems of this branch of cataloguing, but even students of elementary cataloguing should have a general idea of some of the important things involved.

An author is, broadly speaking, the person or

persons responsible for a book's existence, and may be a private individual or group of individuals, or what is called a corporate body, such as a government, a society, or an institution.

The Joint Code provides twenty-two rules for dealing with what it calls "personal" authors, of which these are the more important cases:

(*a*) Single authors of what we may call ordinary books.

(*b*) Groups of individual authors, known as joint authors.

(*c*) Writers of dissertations, i.e., essays or theses required to be written in connexion with the award of certain degrees or diplomas.

(*d*) Illustrators, engravers, map-makers, and architects, in cases where the illustrations, maps, etc., are the only, or the chief feature, of the work.

(*e*) Musical composers, and writers of librettos.

(*f*) Heralds making what are called heraldic visitations.

(*g*) Writers of commentaries, when the commentary does not include the text of the work commented on.

(*h*) Writers of continuations, where the continuation is virtually a separate work.

(*i*) Compilers of indexes and concordances, who, however, take added entries, the main entries being under the works indexed or concordanced.

(*j*) Excerpts from, and epitomes of, the works of a single author.

(*k*) Revisions of earlier works, which are entered under the author of the original work, unless the revision has been carried to such an extent that it is practically a new work.

(*l*) Table talkers.

(*m*) Translations of an author's works.

(*n*) Writers of manuscripts.

Having decided on the name of the individual to be regarded as the author of a book, it often happens that a further decision has to be made as to the part or form of the name to be used as the heading. Ordinary names, like Johnson, Browning, Galsworthy, etc., are obvious, but among others, such varieties as the following call for special consideration :

Compound, or double-barrelled names, which go under the first part of the name.

Surnames with prefixes undergo varying treatment according to the nationality of the author, but such English names go under the prefix.

Christian names are used as the entry word for such people as monarchs, popes, ruling princes, and often, princes of the royal house.

Noblemen and church dignitaries are entered under their family names.

People who write under names other than their own, pseudonyms as we call them, are entered under their real names when they are known, though in many public libraries what is commonly regarded as the best-known name is used.

It sometimes happens, especially in the case of women, that an author changes his or her name after having already written under an earlier name. The general rule is for the entry to be made under the earliest name he or she has used as an author, followed by the word *afterwards* ——. Similarly, a married woman is entered under the earliest name used by her as an author.

As we have said, an author need not be an individual person, but may be an officially constituted body, responsible for publications issued on its instructions or responsibility. This is what is known as corporate authorship, which for purposes of cataloguing may be divided into three main groups:

1. Government bodies, whose official publications are entered under the name of the country, county, city, or town, as:

> Great Britain. Parliament.
> Surrey. County Council.
> Croydon. Corporation.

2. Societies, which may include scientific, literary, historical, or similar bodies of people forming associations, whose publications are generally entered under the first word of their title not an article, as:

> Microscopical Club of Great Britain.
> Botanical Society of Chipstead.

3. Institutions, which include hospitals, museums, libraries, schools, universities, and similar bodies, whose publications are generally entered under the name of the place from which they function, as:

Croydon. General Hospital.
Birmingham. Theatre Royal.

There are many variations from the general rules for both individual and corporate authorship, but they need hardly concern us at this stage. In a few cases, for instance, it is either impossible or impracticable to make an author entry for a book. Anonymous books is an obvious one, unless the name of the author has been discovered.

Other cases in which author headings cannot be made include the Bible, which is the heading used for the whole or any part thereof, with necessary subdivisions, such as: Old Testament, Old Testament. Psalms, etc.

National epics and folk tales generally known by their titles are treated accordingly, as are newspapers and periodicals, almanacs, and year-books, and regularly published directories.

Encyclopædias and dictionaries, however, are entered under the names of their editors, unless better known by their titles, as they often are.

Having made the principal part of an author entry, consisting of the author's name, or heading, as it is sometimes called, and the title of the book, it is usual to give some further information calculated to be useful, alike to librarian and reader. This consists of what is known as the imprint and the collation, and is a statement of the place of publication, publisher's name, date of the edition catalogued, and of the number of volumes, where more than one, or of pages if there is only one volume, illustrations (indicating such things as portraits, maps and plans,

and facsimiles, separately) and vertical size in centimetres, or in inches to the nearest quarter.

Remembering our axiom at the beginning, that one of the essentials of good cataloguing lies in perfect consistency of practice, we must assume some sort of uniformity in matters of capitalisation and punctuation. With regard to the first, the old practice of capitalising every word in an entry is fast dying out, and it is usual to avoid the use of capitals as far as possible, except for the first word of a title, and for names of people and places.

In the matter of punctuation, that of the title page is to be followed, but as there is usually none in modern books, it has to be supplied. It is safe practice to use full stops at the ends of sentences, colons before sub-titles, and semicolons before alternative titles. The Anglo-American code, however, uses full stops at the ends of sentences, colons before sub-titles, semicolons to separate the title from the part relating to an editor, translator, etc. If for any reason, part of a book's title is omitted from an entry, the omission should be indicated by three dots . . . , and if anything is added, it should be written between square brackets. Omissions should not be made at the beginning of a title.

So far, nothing has been said about what are called added entries, i.e., any other entry than the main one, or about references which have to be made from one form of an author's name to another. Actually, these are very important, as in many cases they may be regarded as the cataloguer's salvation. An added entry or a reference should be made from everv other name mentioned on the title page than

the one chosen for the main entry, as for example from names of joint-authors, from illustrators if the main entry has been made under the author of the text, from editors and translators, from writers of the words in the case of musical scores, and in many similar cases.

To give the beginner some slight guidance how to set out a main or author entry, a few examples are appended hereto in the form of catalogue entry used by the American Library of Congress in connexion with its scheme of printed cards. It will be noticed that the name of the author is repeated in the entry, but this repetition is frequently omitted in ordinary British practice.

SPECIMENS OF MAIN OR AUTHOR ENTRIES
(WITH NECESSARY ADDED ENTRIES)

HAMILTON, CICELY.
Modern Russia as seen by an Englishwoman. London, J. M. Dent, 1934.
xxiv, 239 pp. 25 *illus.* 2 *port.* 19cm.

BUCK, FRANK, and ANTHONY, EDWARD.
Bring 'em back alive : the book of the famous film. London, Jarrolds, 1933.
350 pp. 16 *illus.* 23cm.

ANTHONY, EDWARD, *joint author.*
*See* BUCK, FRANK, and ANTHONY, EDWARD. Bring 'em back alive. 1933.

WALKER-SMITH, DEREK.
Lord Reading and his cases. London, Chapman and Hall, 1934.
xvi, 400 pp. 1 *port.* 22cm.

SMITH, DEREK WALKER-. *See* WALKER-SMITH, DEREK.

ASQUITH, HERBERT HENRY, *first earl of Oxford and Asquith.*

H. H. A.: letters of the Earl of Oxford and Asquith to a friend, first series, 1915–1922. London, Geoffrey Bles, 1933.

xii, 218 pp. 1 *port.* 2 *facsim.* 22cm.

OXFORD AND ASQUITH, *first earl of. See* ASQUITH, HERBERT HENRY, *first earl of Oxford and Asquith.*

BIBLE. Concordances.

YOUNG, ROBERT.

Analytical concordance to the Holy Bible, . . . to which is added, a sketch of exploration in Bible lands, by Thomas Nicol. Thirteenth impression of seventh edition, revised throughout by Wm. B. Stevenson. London, Religious Tract Society.

viii, 1090, 93, 23, 30 pp. 1 *port.* 28cm.

YOUNG, ROBERT.

Analytical concordance to the Holy Bible.

NICOL, THOMAS.

*See* BIBLE. Concordances. YOUNG, ROBERT. Analytical concordance to the Holy Bible.

STEVENSON, WM., *editor.*

*See* BIBLE. Concordances. YOUNG, ROBERT. Analytical concordance to the Holy Bible.

CHURCH OF ENGLAND. ARCHBISHOPS' COMMITTEE ON CHURCH AND STATE.

Report: with appendices. London, Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge, 1918. iv, 304 pp. 21cm.

ARCHBISHOPS' COMMITTEE ON CHURCH AND STATE.

*See* CHURCH OF ENGLAND. ARCHBISHOPS' COMMITTEE ON CHURCH AND STATE. Report.

GREAT BRITAIN. WAR OFFICE.

Manual of military cookery and dietary. London, His Majesty's Stationery Office, 1933. xxxvi, 162 pp. 11 *illus.* 18cm.

WAR OFFICE. GREAT BRITAIN.

*See* GREAT BRITAIN. WAR OFFICE.

*Readings*

*Catalog rules: author and title entries.* (Anglo-American Code.)

Brown, J. D. *Manual of Library Economy.* 4th edition, by W. C. Berwick Sayers. 1931. Chapter 18.

Quinn, J. H., and Acomb, H. W. *Manual of cataloguing and indexing.* 1933. *L. A. series of Library manuals,* 5. Part 1.

Thorne, W. B. *First steps in library cataloguing.* 1917. *L.A.A. series,* 8.

*Knowledge Tests*

1. Enumerate, with examples, six forms that an author entry may take.

2. Why is so much importance usually attached to the author entry ?

3. What is Corporate authorship ? Give three examples of it.

4. What are : a compound name, a pseudonym, a joint-author, and a sobriquet ?

5. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages attaching to the principal forms of catalogues used in public libraries.

6. What is an added entry ? Give some examples.

## CHAPTER THIRTEEN

## ACCESSION METHODS. SHELF REGISTERS

ACCESSION methods, like so many of the other terms used in connexion with the syllabus, is an elastic term, capable of wide interpretation. In its narrow sense, it is the recording of every book added to a library's stock in the book or on the card, known as an accessions or stock register. In a wider, and a more legitimate sense, it covers all those records and processes that must be made or carried out before a book is available for circulation, except the actual ordering, classifying, cataloguing, and purely mechanical processes, all of which are specifically mentioned elsewhere in the syllabus, and dealt with later.

It is unnecessary here to describe all these records and processes in detail, as it has been done many times in the general textbooks of library economy, which it is our object to lead up to, except in those cases where subjects have not been so dealt with in a sufficiently simple way.

Assuming for the present purpose that a batch of books has been approved for addition to the library, duly ordered, received, checked in and allocated to their respective libraries or departments, one of the first things to be done is to make an entry

for each book in the accessions book. The sooner this is done the better, before a book is borrowed by anyone who may be entitled to an early reading of it. Theoretically, it should be a rigid rule that in no circumstances should any book be allowed to go out until this record has been made and carried into the book. But only those who have been responsible for this important work know how difficult it is to enforce with tact such a rule.

Ever since the coming of the public library movement, the Accessions or Stock Book has been looked upon as the most important record that a library keeps. So much so that it has become almost a fetish with some librarians, and library assistants are brought up to remember that in the event of fire it must be a case of "Stock Books first." Such a long-standing tradition has become firmly established because this constitutes the only completely reliable record of a library's stock that can be produced for establishing insurance claims, and the one that would most easily facilitate the replacement of the stock.

While this may have been perfectly true in earlier days, when books retained their published prices for longer periods, and stocks were more permanent than they are to-day, it is obvious that any stock book that has been in use for a number of years can provide only the most approximate estimate of what it would cost to replace the stock, part of which would have assumed an enhanced value, while a much greater proportion would have greatly depreciated. This is mentioned in order that the beginner may realise that the monetary value of a

library cannot be assessed by the simple expedient of adding up the cost figures as given in the pages of an accessions book.

But at the same time, without raising its value to any unduly exalted heights, it is still perfectly true that from an administrative point of view this is a very necessary and important record, and one that should therefore be kept with the greatest care.

Among the questions that an Accessions Book should answer are the following :

1. When was a certain book bought or donated ?
2. If bought, what did it cost ?
3. From whom was it bought, or by whom was it given ?
4. When was it withdrawn or discarded ?
5. If replaced, when ?

Other questions may be answered too, but as most of them can be equally well answered from other records, they are not of the same importance. The particulars recorded vary in different libraries, but they generally follow some such lines as :

1. Accession number.
2. Author.
3. Title.
4. Name of publisher.
5. Place of publication.
6. Date of publication.
7. Volume number, if more than one.
8. Class number.
9. Name of vendor or donor.
10. Date of accessioning.

11. Published price.
12. Cost price.
13. Dates of withdrawal.
14. Dates of replacement.
15. Remarks.

Accessions books are in three forms :

1. Rigid books.
2. Loose-leaf books.
3. Cards.

The introduction of the loose-leaf ledger and of the card index system has largely displaced the rigid book form, except in libraries—mostly of a reference character—where the book stock is a permanent one, the advantage being the obvious one of greater mobility, whereby it is possible to re-write pages as and when they may require it, consequent upon discardings, or replacements with newer editions. This advantage is still greater in the case of the card form, in that when a book is replaced, it is only necessary to substitute a new card for the obsolete one, and when it is finally discarded, the card may be removed and the number at once used up.

The loose-leaf book form has no disadvantages whatever, and the only serious ones attaching to the card registers are (1) the necessity of providing card cabinets, which take up a lot of space in course of time, and (2) the comparative ease with which a card measuring five inches by three may get mislaid, a weakness due to the bad habit of leaving things lying around, or of removing them from the cabinet

instead of taking a note of any desired information. Where the card form is in use, it should be made a serious offence for any unauthorised person to remove a card from a cabinet. One of the earliest things, by the way, that the young library assistant should acquire is a proper respect for the care and treatment of the few really essential records that a library keeps. The way some treat such things as catalogue cards, for instance, is perfectly appalling.

In these days, when at least the fiction stock of a library is in a constant state of flux, the card method of accessioning has a good deal to commend itself, because of the ease with which one card may be scrapped and a new one substituted. A satisfactory compromise offers itself in the use of both loose-leaf books and cards, the first for the non-fiction stock and the second for the fiction stock. For fiction, a sequence of numbers, each commencing with nought, can be employed, and the particulars recorded may be reduced to :

1. Accession number.
2. Author.
3. Title.
4. Publisher.
5. Price.
6. Name of vendor or donor.
7. Date of accessioning.
8. Date of replacement.

Besides the accessions or stock book, on which we have dwelt at some length because of its importance, a number of subsidiary records are kept, including :

*A gift register*, in which are recorded particulars of all gifts received, whether they are actually placed in stock or not. This register may be in book or in card form, and should contain the names and

addresses of donors, the number of volumes presented, the date of acknowledgement, and the disposition of the gift. If placed in stock, the accessions number or numbers may be included. We are not concerned here with the policy of accepting gifts or not, but if accepted, they should be acknowledged, recorded, and used or otherwise disposed of at the librarian's discretion.

*A readers' suggestions book or card register*, in which readers should be cordially invited to enter particulars of any books they may wish to see added to the library. Although suggestions are often misused in libraries where the suggestor gets a first reading of a popular book that would have been added in any case, they are things to be encouraged, as indicating at least to some extent the books the public wants.

*A continuations register*, which is a record of such things as the transactions or publications of societies to which the library pays an annual subscription, and works that are published a volume at a time, with intervals between. This record is best kept on cards, and should contain particulars of the publications due to be received, whether paid for in advance or as received, and the date when the last volume was received.

*A withdrawals register*, most usefully kept on slips, which can in due course form the order slip in the event of the book being replaced, or the record from which the necessary deletions can be made from accessions register, catalogue, and shelf register, in the event of its being discarded.

*A stock abstract sheet* is used to save time at the end of the year, when the librarian draws up his annual report of additions to the stock. In appropriate columns are entered the numbers of the books added to, or withdrawn from, the stock, in their respective classes.

Finally, there is the *shelf register,* which is a record of the books in the order in which they would stand on the shelves if they were at home. It is used primarily in connexion with stocktaking, and may be kept equally well on cards or loose sheets. The register usually indicates the class number of the book, its accession number, brief author and title, and by means of ruled columns, the presence or absence of the book at the last stocktaking. Some libraries also use it as a rough subject catalogue, though its limitations in this connexion are obviously very great, the particulars of the books being of the barest possible kind, and each capable of a single entry only.

All these records auxiliary to accessioning are adequately described and illustrated in the recognised textbooks.

*Readings*

Brown, J. D. *Manual of Library Economy.* 4th edition by W. C. Berwick Sayers. 1931.

Chapter 14. Accession Methods.

Doubleday, W. E. *Manual of Library Routine.* 1933. *L. A. series of Library Manuals.*

Chapter 2. Book selection and ordering.

Chapter 4. Administrative records. Invoice records. Routine accession registers. Donation books. Accession registers. Summary statistics.

Chapter 14. Stocktaking. Withdrawals and replacements.

*Knowledge Tests*

1. Why is an accession register of some kind regarded as one of the essential records a library should keep ?

2. Enumerate the particulars usually found in an accessions book, underlining those you regard as an essential minimum.

3. What is a shelf register, and for what purposes can it be usefully employed ?

4. Draw up a form of accessions register in card form.

5. What are the principal sources of a library's book accessions, and to what extent are any of them to be encouraged or otherwise ?

6. Describe a form of shelf register that can be equally well used for its primary purpose, or by the public as a guide to the shelves.

7. A shelf register cannot properly take the place of a classified catalogue. Why not ?

# CHAPTER FOURTEEN

## ELEMENTARY LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION

### CONSTITUTION OF PUBLIC LIBRARY COMMITTEES AND DUTIES OF LIBRARY AUTHORITIES
(MUNICIPAL AND COUNTY)

THE beginner in library work need not concern himself with the details of library legislation, but he should know how a library is established and maintained, what constitutes the governing authority, and how it works, and the relations and responsibilities of the several parties concerned.

Public libraries are divided into two groups, urban and county. The legislation under which the first group is provided and maintained in England and Wales centres in several Acts of Parliament, beginning for our present purpose with the Act of 1892, which is the principal Act, and culminating, for the time being, in that of 1919, which included two revolutionary changes, the removal of what we knew as the penny rate limit, and the granting of power to County Councils to adopt the Acts and to provide library facilities for areas administered by the Council for education purposes, where they had not hitherto existed, and to do other things which we need not discuss here.

While it is not compulsory for any authority to provide a public library, the result of this simple, but important, piece of legislation, has been that there are now few places in the country without a library service of some sort, inadequate maybe in some cases, but nevertheless an improvement on the previous condition of affairs. By the removal of the amount of the rate that may be levied for library purposes,* the responsibility of an inadequate library service now rests entirely with the governing authority.

To provide a library, it is only necessary for the Council to decide, by a majority vote of those present at one of its ordinary meetings, to adopt the Public Libraries Acts, whereupon the Council becomes what is called the library authority. Thereafter, the success of a public library, county or urban, depends to a large extent on the harmony that exists between the library authority, the committee, the librarian, and the staff.

As the Council, or library authority as we now know it, is also concerned with many other things, including education, public health, roads, etc., for greater convenience it delegates all or part of its powers under the Acts to a library committee, except the levying of the rate, the raising of a loan, the purchasing of land, and the provision of new buildings. A library committee may include, besides members of the Council, what are called co-opted members, who are men and women with special knowledge or an interest in libraries, but

* A 3d. limit still exists in Scotland, and one ranging from 1d. to 3d. in Ireland.

who are not members of the Council. In Scotland it is compulsory that half the committee shall consist of councillors and half of co-opted members.

In the case of a county library, the County Council, which is the library authority, similarly delegates all or any of its powers to the education committee, of which the library committee is in turn a sub-committee. It is because of this that county libraries have a closer relationship to officially constituted education than urban ones have.

Library committees are of two kinds, recommending and reporting, committees. A recommending committee, as might be supposed, is not as free as the other, because it has to recommend its proposals to the Council for approval before carrying them into effect. The commoner kind is the reporting committee, which can do anything within the scope of the Acts, with the few exceptions already noted.

It is usual for the committee to meet monthly or quarterly, and to report to the next meeting of the Council the results of its deliberations, in three such groups as :

Executive business.

Reports.

Recommendations for consideration of Council.

The committee, with the advice of the librarian, formulates the policy of the library, makes rules for its proper administration, considers lists of books suggested for purchase by the librarian, as well as such other requisitions as he may submit, examines

the accounts for purchases made since the last meeting, receives the librarian's report on the work of the library during the previous month or quarter, and so on.

Staff appointments, the regulation of salaries, and the conditions under which the staff work, are invariably considered by the committee, but in many cases these matters are finally settled by the finance committee of the Council, or by what is known as an establishment committee, either of which deals with the library staff in relation to other departments of the service.

Every library authority must frame a set of rules and regulations for the good government of its library, but it will also adopt a set of what are called bye-laws, the difference between the two things being that only the second are legally enforceable in a court of law.

### *Knowledge Tests*

1. What revolutionary changes did the 1919 Act effect ?

2. How does a county libraries committee differ from an urban one ?

3. What is meant by a " delegation of powers " ?

4. What advantages, if any, do you see in having co-opted members of a libraries committee ?

5. What are the duties of a libraries committee, and how do they differ from those of the librarian ?

6. A county library committee has a direct relationship to the education committee, an urban one usually has not. How does this arise, and what are the respective advantages and disadvantages ?

7. How are the Libraries Acts adopted to-day ?

8. What are a reporting and a recommending libraries committee respectively ?

## ADMINISTRATION AND ARRANGEMENT OF THE VARIOUS LIBRARY DEPARTMENTS

The common, and essentially correct, idea of a library is that of a room or building set aside for the housing and distribution of books. But a library may be a room or series of rooms, a building or a group of buildings, all varying in size and importance according to the type of library and the section of the community it is intended to serve.

As we are concerned mainly with the public library, let us examine briefly the rooms or departments to be found in a typical example, beginning with the least important, and proceeding to the one in which the highest type of work is usually done.

Most public libraries, then, contain a newspaper room, or often a newspaper and reading room combined, in which are displayed most of the national daily newspapers and few or more local and provincial ones, according to the size of the library. The common lay-out of the room is for the newspapers to be arranged on stands or slopes round the walls, while the centre is reserved for tables, at which the periodicals may be read. The routine work involved in this room—or rooms, if separate ones are set aside for newspapers and for periodicals —consists in removing the old numbers of the papers and periodicals, displaying the new ones, repairing any damage that they may suffer, keeping the periodicals tidy and in their proper places, and

seeing that the purpose for which the room is provided is not abused by undue conversation and loafing.

Care must be taken to see that all newspapers and periodicals are received as soon as they are due, that their receipt is recorded in some form of "check," that the newsagent is communicated with immediately in the event of their non-arrival, and that they are displayed as promptly as possible on arrival. These tasks fall to the lot of the junior assistant, and are more important than they may at first appear to be, as a considerable number of complaints and disputes may arise through the non-receipt of newspapers and periodicals, or through their detention by one reader beyond the prescribed time.

The department in which most junior assistants spend the greater part of their time is the lending library. Of its arrangement it is unnecessary to say much here, as it has been dealt with in detail in all the textbooks. Suffice it to say that within recent years there has been a much overdue tendency to make it less formal and uninviting than it used to be. Book-cases are made that neither require the average reader to over-reach himself in getting to the top shelf or to incur backache in getting down to the bottom one. This has been made possible by reducing the heights of cases to about seven feet, and tilting and raising the bottom shelf at least eighteen inches from the floor. Some attempt at supervision is made by radiating the stacks from the central service point, and more liberal gangways are allowed than heretofore,

Book display has become a feature in most lending libraries, in a few cases to such an extent that the librarians seriously advocate that display is everything, and to which shelf classification is subsidiary. Our own view is that one of the strong points of a modern lending library lies in its exact shelf classification, which need not in the least militate against attractive topical displays.

Where space permits, as it should in any newly planned library, a few chairs and tables should be provided for what is commonly called the "browser." Evergreens and flowers are no longer regarded as out of keeping with the atmosphere of a lending library.

Natural and artificial lighting, suitable floor surfaces, adequate guiding to the shelves and catalogues, all have their place in the perfect arrangement of this department, while the public service may be facilitated or hindered by the attention or otherwise to the staff enclosure and service counters, which should be spacious enough to accommodate the staff, and to permit the public to be handled with the minimum of delay and inconvenience. There should be a definite place at which difficult cases can be dealt with and disputes enquired into, in order that the traffic may not be held up.

The work that is likely to fall to the lot of a beginner in a lending library is so well known, and has been so often described that it is unnecessary to reiterate it here. Much of it is purely mechanical, as those of us who have done it still remember. It

is sometimes apt to be regarded as irksome, but even such things as receiving and issuing books, tidying shelves, replacing books, etc., are tasks that are capable of intelligent treatment by those who perform their allotted tasks seriously. Many junior assistants quite overlook the fact that the efficiency of a library service is often judged, and the status of librarianship assessed, by the impression that a borrower receives of his treatment at the service counter or among the shelves.

At the same time, it has to be recognised that much of our early work *is* mechanical, and whenever possible, some variation should be given. The junior should be allowed to help readers in their search for books, to prepare simple reading lists, to arrange some of the displays, to take short spells of what is known as floor duty, and he should be assured that any suggestion he may make will be sympathetically considered.

Most modern public libraries include a children's library, usually a single room providing on shelves round the walls books for home reading, tables in the centre at which the children's periodicals provided may be read, while the end of the room farthest removed from the entrance is reserved for a collection of reference books. The room should be as light, airy, and cheerful as possible, with effective, but not startling, decorative and artistic features. In general, the methods should be as similar as possible to those in operation in the adult departments, in order that when the time comes for the child to use those departments, he shall not have to unlearn all that he has been taught.

The children's library used to be regarded as more or less anybody's job, but that view is gradually being changed, and children's librarians are becoming recognised units of library staffs. Comparatively few library assistants have the necessary gifts of patience and sympathy, combined with firmness, to make it likely that they will succeed in this work. For some reason, it has come to be taken for granted that women make the best children's librarians, a point on which there is room for some difference of opinion.

The routine work in a children's library is similar to that in an adult department, but in many ways it is much more exacting and wearing. Besides being an administrator in the ordinary sense, the children's librarian must be able to tell stories if required to do so, to visit teachers and secure their co-operation, and, of course, have a wide knowledge of old and new children's literature.

Usually, there will be a reference library, large or small, quite general or with specialised features, according to the size and type of population served. In some ways, if one excepts the casual enquirer, the crossword devotee, and other habitués with no real object in life, this is the department in which serious research work or study is carried on. Arrangements differ. In a few cases readers are not allowed direct access to the shelves, in more they are allowed access to such things as annuals, directories, and quick reference works of the dictionary and encyclopædia type, while in yet others the whole of the collection may be freely consulted, or at least as much of it as can be displayed on the open shelves, excepting,

of course, rare books, and generally, the local collection, which is a feature of most libraries.

The work of the junior in this department will be similar in many ways to that already referred to in connexion with other departments, in that it will consist largely of fetching and carrying. But again, there will be relief in the shape of opportunities for helping enquirers, preparing reading lists, and so on.

In this connexion, it may be well to point out that there is nothing more annoying to an enquirer than for him to see an assistant wander aimlessly from book to book and from subject to subject, or to show clearly that he has no idea how to use a book. The beginner should, therefore, acquaint himself with the various parts of a book and with the different kinds of clues that may be gleaned from each. The title page, the date of publication, the preface and introduction, the contents, and of course, the index, are all potential sources of valuable information.

The foregoing are the departments to be found in larger or smaller forms in most public libraries. In addition, there may be lecture halls, special collection rooms, cataloguing departments, etc., all of which are dealt with adequately in such books as Brown's *Manual of Library Economy*.

In connexion with his study of this section of the examination syllabus, the beginner should take advantage of the many opportunities offered by the Association of Assistant Librarians for visiting other libraries, and so learn something of the methods and arrangements of other libraries than the one in which he works.

*Knowledge Tests*

1. What are the principal departments of an average-sized public library, and what are their functions ?

2. Outline a day's work of a junior assistant in (*a*) a lending, and (*b*) a children's library.

3. What are the chief features of the arrangements in a modern reference library ?

4. Draw a simple plan of an open-access lending library, showing the disposition of the bookcases and principal furniture.

5. What are the purposes of a staff work book ?

6. Describe briefly how a county library carries on its work.

## REGISTRATION OF BORROWERS

It is obvious that anyone taking books away from a public library must, besides conforming to the general rules made for the proper use of the books, be registered in some way, in order that there may be an assurance that the books will be returned, or their cost be recoverable if the borrower neglects to do so. The systems of registration in use at many libraries are very elaborate and take a long time to carry out. While various attempts have been made to modify and simplify the machinery, at least two main processes are essential: the borrower must make application for membership on the prescribed form of voucher, and must receive some form of membership ticket in exchange.

Briefly enumerated, the kinds of people who are usually granted tickets are: householders, other residents (including children), people attending

recognised educational institutions in the town, though they may not live in it, and similarly, people working in the town. People who live in the town and cannot, or will not, obtain a guarantee from a ratepayer, are usually given tickets on payment of a small returnable deposit, and those who live in surrounding districts but have no direct connexion with the town are given similar facilities on payment of a small annual subscription.

As to the number and kinds of tickets that a borrower may hold, these vary, though the tendency is to grant more than formerly. Ordinary borrowers may have three: one for general use, one for non-fiction, and a third for musical scores. But teachers, and others who can show reasonable evidence that they are studying, are often granted as many as six tickets.

In many ways, libraries no longer work in the watertight compartments formed by parish boundaries that have existed for too long, and it is the rule rather than the exception that during temporary residence elsewhere, a borrower may use the local library on production of a reader's ticket from his home town.

Despite the simplifications that have been effected, the registration of borrowers is still a fairly elaborate process. Briefly and roughly, they involve: the examination of the voucher to see that it is correctly filled in, and that the applicant is entitled to membership, and the checking of the guarantor's name with the voters' list or a directory. These two things being in order, the applicant should be allowed to borrow books forthwith on temporary tickets.

In due course the voucher, with others, is sent to the registration department if there is one, or collected by the person making out the tickets. Usually, in a system of libraries, the work is centralised, partly because it is more economical that it should be, partly because abuses of the facilities for borrowing by attempts to take out tickets at all the libraries in the system may be checked, though, by the way, if this were the only reason for centralising registration, it would be scarcely worth the trouble involved.

The voucher is here checked with the borrowers' register, which is formed by filing the vouchers in alphabetical order of their names. It is assigned a number or numbers according to the number of tickets applied for, and a ticket or tickets are made out and sent to the library at which the borrower was enrolled.

Most elaborate schemes for the numbering of tickets have been devised, but it is now seriously debated whether a borrower needs to be given a number at all. Its only value seems to lie in cases where a borrower may return a book belonging to one library to another one in the system, and the discharge is made by telephone. It is obviously easier to telephone and note a number than it is a whole name and address. These systems of numbering are all discussed in the textbooks.

Besides the register of borrowers, it is usual to keep in the same sequence particulars of defaulters, and of duplicate tickets that have been issued in consequence of their originals having been lost.

Sometimes road registers are kept, which, despite

allegations to the contrary, we know to be useful for various purposes, such as in outbreaks of infectious diseases, and especially for the canvassing of slack districts.

Registers of guarantors are sometimes kept, but frankly, we do not consider them worth the work involved, because defaulting guarantors are very few.

The registration work can be substantially reduced by extending the period for which tickets are valid from the year or two years that used to be common practice, to five years, or indefinitely. It is true that if this is done, a number of borrowers will have changed their addresses, and omitted to inform the librarian, an oversight that can be rectified by having a checking fortnight once a year, during which every reader's address is verified.

It goes without saying that readers' tickets are available at any library within the system, and often borrowers need not return books to the library from which they borrowed them.

Everything else that can be said in this connexion has been said and need not be repeated. We must avoid giving the impression that we are conferring a favour on a would-be borrower by admitting him to membership. Every Englishman hates forms and all that they often stand for ; he has only one word for such things—red tape. Efforts should be made, therefore, to reduce the formalities to as simple a process as possible, commensurate with the reasonable safeguards that must be taken. No charge should be made for vouchers, but in some cases as much as threepence is charged for a lost ticket

voucher in the event of a borrower having lost his original ticket.

*Knowledge Tests*

1. Describe a system of numbering borrowers' tickets.

2. In what circumstances would you allow a borrower to have more than the number of books prescribed by the ordinary rules ?

3. Who may usually borrow books from a lending library, and what are the conditions under which they may do so ?

4. Describe briefly the processes involved in registering a borrower, from the time he makes his application until the ticket is in regular use.

5. What are : a number register, a roads register, a borrowers' register ?

6. If you wanted to simplify your system of borrowers' registration, what processes, if any, would you cut out, and why ?

## THE ISSUE AND RETURN OF BOOKS

By the "issue and return of books" is meant, some of the records and all of the processes involved, from the time a borrower presents himself at the entrance until he leaves by the exit. As all these have been adequately described over and over again, and as they make up much of the working day of most beginners, it is unnecessary to do more than touch upon a few of the points that make for good service, the beginning and ending of all our work. Most of the disputes that arise between staff and readers do so in connexion with the operations of

charging and discharging books, and we shall refer to them in another section.

It is unnecessary here, for the same reason, to describe the features of a charging system, such as forms of tickets and bookcards, methods of arranging the issue, the question of fines, the bespeaking of books, renewals, special and extended issues, etc.

But it is necessary to impress on everyone concerned that the library service is often judged by the impression a reader receives in connexion with these operations of charging and discharging. For this reason every endeavour should be made to maintain perfect accuracy in the charging system.

The issue should be kept in strict order and be adequately and clearly guided with date and number guides to facilitate the discharging of books, book-cards so worn that there is a danger of the charging number being misread should be re-written, as should borrowers' tickets that have become worn with use or damaged by misuse.

Wrong discharges should be guarded against by the simple expedient of checking the number on the book-card with that on the board label, and if necessary, by asking the borrower's name, and checking it with the ticket about to be handed to him. Overdue notices sent to borrowers who have returned the books in question or have had them renewed are a source of friction, and inexcusable mistakes should be guarded against, as far as possible, by checking the shelves before the notices are posted.

The standard period for which a book is lent is fourteen days, but if not knowingly required by

another reader, it should be possible to have it for, say, two further periods. Similarly, teachers and genuine students might be allowed to keep their books for a month or six weeks, and borrowers going on holiday allowed to take two books on a ticket for a similar period, as well as over the usual public holiday periods.

### *Knowledge Tests*

1. A few libraries impose no fines, most impose one of a penny a week, others have a gradually increasing scale, ranging from a penny for the first week, twopence for the second, and so on. Which, in your view, tends to ensure a better library service, and why ?

2. Describe a system of charging in common use to-day.

3. How are overdues usually dealt with ?

4. Define the terms : extended issue, renewal, date label, sorting tray, date guide, bespoken file.

5. What precautions should a library assistant take to guard against the wrong discharging of books ?

6. It should be possible for a reader to borrow a book from one library in a system and return it to any other. What machinery is necessary to enable this to be done ?

## STATISTICS

What a financial statement of the year's working is to a business concern, so is a statistical record to a library. It is one of the few ways a library authority has of knowing whether it is giving good

service, whether that service is prospering or not, and whether it is being administered on a sound basis.

The extent to which statistics are kept varies greatly. Some librarians have a passion for them, others are content to limit themselves to those that any efficient business house would provide. All of them must, obviously, relate in some way to the stock, the use made of it, and its cost.

In recent years the Library Association has done a useful service by drawing up a form of essential statistics, which enable at least a certain amount of comparison to be made between one library and another. Briefly, these are grouped under five heads: (1) *General,* showing the population of the area served, amount of rate levied in the pound, cost of library *service* per inhabitant, total cost of library per inhabitant, number of library buildings, number of staff. (2) *Income* (*a*) from rate, (*b*) from other sources. (2a) *Expenditure* : (*a*) on library service, which includes the amount spent on books, binding, periodicals, printing and stationery, furniture and fitting, salaries ; (*b*) on fabric charges, which include rents and loans, rates and taxes, upkeep of buildings, heating, lighting, and cleaning. (3) *Issues* : lending libraries, reference library recorded issues (in both, books, prints, and other material separately). (4) *Borrowers :* Number of borrowers, percentage of borrowers to population, number of supplementary tickets held, total number of tickets in force. (5) *Stocks :* Number of volumes at beginning of year, number of prints, etc., at beginning of year, volumes withdrawn during the year, prints, etc.,

withdrawn during the year, additions (including replacements) during the year, prints, etc., added during the year, total volumes at end of the year, total prints, etc., at end of the year, volumes per head of population.

Such statistics as it is necessary to keep of the book stock have been at least indicated in the chapter on accession methods, and those regarding borrowers in the section dealing with the registration of borrowers.

Statistics of issues are kept by means of some form of daily issue sheet, ruled in appropriate columns. These are usually those of the main classes, but a more accurate idea of the kind of reading being practised can be gained by providing columns to the extent of the hundred main divisions of Dewey. From day to day this rough record is carried into an issue book, from which such statistics as are required for the committee can be easily prepared. Separate records will of course be kept for reference, adult lending, and children's issues.

It is also necessary to keep a record of the amounts received in respect of fines, books lost or damaged by readers, sales of publications, bespoken fees, hire of rooms, etc. These are kept in a Receipts book which is entered up daily from the counterfoils of the receipts, and by calculating the number of roll tickets given out in respect of fines.

### *Knowledge Tests*

1. How are the daily statistics of issues usually recorded in (*a*) a lending library, and (*b*) a reference library ?

2. What are the principal features of the form of statistics recommended by the Library Association ?

3. How would you prepare the statistical record of a year's additions to a library ?

4. What statistical information is usually given in the Annual Report of a Libraries Committee ?

5. In what ways can the statistics of issues in two libraries of approximately the same size prove quite different things ?

6. What is the value of a detailed daily record of issues ?

## ORDERING AND PREPARATION OF BOOKS

Books purchased for addition to libraries come from three main sources : (1) suggestions of the librarian, based on his own and his staff's study of the reviews, and representing a smaller or larger percentage of the book market's output, according to the amount of the book fund available, and usually submitted for the approval of the committee, either in the form of booklists or by displays of the actual books ; (2) suggestions of readers, which are to be encouraged, though not necessarily acceded to in every case, and (3) purchases in between the committee meetings of second-hand and other books, which have necessarily to be made at the moment the books are available, and which the librarian is usually authorised to make.

With regard to the choice and number of booksellers, practice varies. In some cases the order is given to one bookseller, but a fairer method is to divide it between a number, according to the amount of money likely to be spent in a year.

Strictly speaking, there is no advantage to be gained by buying from this or that bookseller, as nearly all books are published at what are called net or fixed prices, and no bookseller should therefore be in a position to offer terms better than those obtainable from any other.

There is in operation an agreement between publishers, booksellers, and library authorities, whereby a discount of 10 per cent is given on the published price of books to libraries spending £100 or more a year. This concession is given to all approved library authorities who sign an agreement and obtain what is called a licence. For many reasons with which we are not concerned at this stage, while having certain advantages, it is not altogether satisfactory. To get the greatest value for his still insufficient book fund, the librarian usually resorts to such devices as giving his bookseller a limited time in which to discover as many review copies as he can, while the purchase of some fiction, and of other books that do not immediately begin to date, is postponed until copies become available through the circulating libraries, six months after publication. Admittedly this is not ideal, but until local authorities show a more generous attitude towards libraries, it must continue at least to some extent.

It is becoming the increasing practice in municipal libraries to order books by means of a triplicate order book, one copy being kept in the book by the librarian, while the other two are sent to the bookseller, one of which he retains, returning the second with the books as an invoice. At the time of

ordering, the date should be stamped on the order slip, which was, originally, the suggestion slip.

On the receipt of a batch of books from a bookseller, several things have to be watched carefully. The assistant unpacking the parcels must examine the wrappings carefully to see that no books have been left in them. The books must be checked with the order slips to see that they are in every case those ordered, that where a specified edition was asked for it has been supplied, and that the prices are those at which they were ordered. The date of receipt should be stamped on the order slip underneath the date of order.

The assistant checking in the books having satisfied himself that all the books invoiced have been received in their correct editions, and at their proper prices, it is often the practice to stamp the backs of the title pages with what is called a Process Stamp. The primary purpose of this stamp is not, as many suppose, to trap an assistant in his work, though it certainly serves to find the assistant who persistently does bad work, but it is to ensure that all the processes have been carried out. The number of processes through which a book goes before it gets to the public varies, but usually they are somewhat as follows, after having been checked in and allocated to the appropriate departments: (1) accessioning, (2) classifying, (3) cataloguing, (4) checking with subject index in cases of new subjects, (5) cutting, fortunately seldom necessary with modern books, (6) stamping, (7) book-plating and labelling, (8) book-carding in the case of lending library books, (9) shelf registering, (10) class lettering

at back of book, (11) checking by a senior to see that everything has been done that should have been done. The tendency to-day is to reduce the non-essential work and records to a minimum, but it is difficult to see that any of the above processes can be omitted or reduced. Although there are those who tell us that we need neither catalogue nor classify certain kinds of books, this idea is not likely, we imagine, ever to find general favour.

### *Knowledge Tests*

1. What are the processes through which a lending library book passes, and what purpose does each one serve?
2. Describe a method of ordering new books.
3. How would you keep a check on books not supplied by your bookseller for various reasons?
4. Large library systems have a special cataloguing and order department. What are the advantages and disadvantages of this?
5. What are the chief things to watch out for in checking in new books?
6. What is the purpose of a process stamp, and what particulars does it usually contain?

## THE CARE OF BOOKS

It is an understood thing that the public are expected to take care of the books they use or borrow, and any damage they may sustain, especially damage that might have been avoided with reasonable care, must be paid for, or at least questioned.

But there is another side to this question. The staff should likewise treat the books under their

care with proper respect, and with more reason, because those who spend their lives among them should know and appreciate their physical weaknesses. It would probably give most of us a shock to be told that at least as much damage is done to books by ourselves as by our readers.

A new or newly bound book can have its life cut short by suddenly opening it in the middle and so breaking its back. There is a proper procedure to be followed in these cases, and if the reader has not yet had it instilled into him, he should take the earliest opportunity of finding out what it is, before he does further damage.

Similarly, bad damage can be done by jamming books into shelves that are already full, thereby squeezing the sections and ensuring that the next person who goes to take a book off the shelf will tear the back, pull half the contents of the shelf on to the floor, or more likely, accomplish both feats.

Nor is it good for books or assistants that too many books should be carried at a time when shelving. The chances are that they will get dropped. The tendency to introduce book trolleys as an aid to shelving is to be encouraged from this point of view.

Book repairing can easily result in book damage if it is done by anyone who has not been properly instructed, and especially from the too lavish use of the paste brush. The public should be definitely discouraged from effecting repairs of even the most trivial kind, for they usually have curious ideas as to what constitutes a repair. The careless cutting of leaves, especially that form which fails to get

into the back of the book's section, is another potential source of damage.

Readers should be required to keep books dry, and protected from the weather, never to lay them face downwards, nor expose them to heat, and to remember that a book is made to be read, and not to be used as a flower press or as a receptacle for spectacles, hair slides, cigarette holders, etc.

### *Knowledge Tests*

1. Draft a notice to users of a lending library on the care of the books that they may borrow.
2. What are the chief forms of damage that books may unwittingly suffer at the hands of the staff ?
3. How would you deal with children who did not take proper care of the books they borrow ?
4. What are the chief sources of damage to books by borrowers, and how would you try to reduce them ?
5. A reference reader wishes to make a tracing of a drawing from a book. Under what conditions would you allow him to do it ?

## BOOKBINDING AND BOOK REPAIRS

In view of the great amount of time a junior assistant spends in handling books, an early opportunity should be taken to learn something of the principles and essentials of library bookbinding, as well as of the art of book repairing. With regard to the first, while there are plenty of sources of printed information, two things suggest themselves that may not occur to everyone. One is to go over a modern bookbinding works, especially one that

makes a feature of library binding; it is often possible to do this. The other is to get hold of a withdrawn book, take it to pieces and examine carefully the kinds of materials used, the sewing, as to whether it is on what is called the all along principle, two sheets on, oversewn all through or only in parts, whether the boards are split to receive the tapes on which the book is sewn, how many tapes there are, how the plates are guarded and the guards sewn into the sections, whether the edges have been unduly cut, whether the back is hollow or tight, whether it is strengthened with a kind of coarse muslin called mull or with stiff paper, what materials are used for the cover, whether wholly cloth, and if so with what results, what kind of leather is used, if any, whether the hinges on which the book opens and shuts are French joints, and so on. It is surprising how much can be learned from such an anatomical examination.

It must now be apparent that there is a good deal more in library bookbinding than might at first be supposed. Roughly speaking, the one essential of a good library binding is strength to withstand the heavy and sometimes careless handling to which it is likely to be subjected. Whatever other features it may have are conditioned by the extent to which it answers to this one.

Within recent years, the attention of library binders has been directed towards producing a binding that shall have some relation to the paper on which the book is printed, so that on the one hand the binding shall not collapse and leave us with a book capable of further useful service, and

on the other, one that shall not tempt us to circulate a book after it has become dirty inside, because it has still got a perfectly good cover.

Other experiments have been made to secure a binding that is neat, and not too institutional in its appearance; these are sometimes known as "brighter bindings," or "facsimile bindings." Various covering materials have been used in all these experiments, ranging from bright-hued leathers to cloths and fabrics of the sundour variety.

It used to be an axiom that there was "nothing like leather" for library purposes, but we should wish to modify this nowadays, in consequence of the coming of the cheap edition of almost every book, and the enlargement of the book fund of most libraries, which together make it practical, and economical even, to discard books much sooner than used to be the case. Books that are seldom used, but which must be kept for reference or other purposes, are quite definitely better bound in cloth or buckram.

Library binding should only be entrusted to firms who specialise in this kind of work, for only so can one be assured of getting binding that shall be durable, strong, neat, reasonably cheap in price, and returned to service as soon as possible.

A few libraries have tried the experiment of running what are called "home binderies," but, generally speaking, it has not been a success. Outside prices are usually cheaper, the work better and more varied in its appearance, and the rate of completion more rapid. Large libraries sometimes have "home repairing departments," which is rather

a different proposition, these being concerned with such work as re-casing, repairing, mounting maps and plates, making periodical cases, and so on.

With further reference to book repairing, it should be unnecessary to point out to any library assistant that books must be kept clean and in a proper state of repair ; loose pages and plates should be at once tipped in with the slightest application of the paste brush, and pencilled comments should be rubbed out. Other treatments that can be carried out are explained in the chapter on Book Repairing in *Small Municipal Libraries*, and in other works.

A word of warning seems desirable just here. The public should be expected to report any damage that they may do or find, but they should never be allowed to attempt to repair a book. Nor for that matter should any library assistant who has not received proper instruction how to do it. It is also false economy to try to prolong the first life of an unbound book by repairing it when it should be properly sent to the binder. For while a few more issues may be extracted, the work of the binder is only made more difficult, and the second life of the book shortened.

There are a lot of terms used in connexion with library bookbinding, the more important of which should be understood by even the youngest junior and are therefore given below.

Collating : the examination of a book to see that the signatures are in their correct order.

End Papers : Plain or decorative sheets of paper at the beginning and end of a book, strengthened at the joint with linen.

Fast Colours : Those that will not fade on being exposed to strong sunlight, nor wash off when made wet.

Finishing : The processes carried out after the book leaves the actual binder, as gold or blind ornamentation and lettering.

Fore-edge : The front edge of a book.

Forwarding : The actual binding of the book after it has been sewn.

Foxed : Brown stains or spots on paper caused by damp.

French joint : A joint or hinge formed by fixing the board at a short distance from the back.

Guards : Narrow strips of paper sewn in to balance the thickness of folded maps and plans or folded plates. Single plates are guarded on linen or jaconet and sewn into the sections.

Half-bound : When the backs and corners are covered with leather and the sides with some other material.

Headband : Cotton or silk band at the top and bottom of a book. Mostly used for the sake of appearance only to-day.

Kettlestitch : Fastening-off stitch at the head and tail of a book.

Laced in : Fastening the bands on which the book has been sewn through holes in the boards.

Loose back : The covering material has a hollow between the back of the book and the outside cover.

Oversewing : Sewing by means of an overcast stitch.

Quarter-bound : When the back only is covered with leather.

Sewing all along : Where the thread passes the entire length of the sections round the tapes, and is secured by the kettlestitch.

Sewing two on : On reaching the middle of a section, the needle is passed into the section above and sewn through to the other end. A part of the section is thus always left unsewn.

Signature : Letters or numbers on the first page of each folded section. Used in the collation of books.

Split boards : Boards split at the edge to admit the insertion of the tapes on which the book is sewn and the extra linen sewn on the end papers.

Three-quarter-bound : Similar to half-bound, except that the book has larger leather back and corners.

Tight back : When the covering material is attached directly to the back of the book.

Whole-bound : When the whole of the book is bound in the same material.

### *Knowledge Tests*

1. In what ways does library bookbinding stand in a class of work by itself ?

2. Define the terms : half-bound, French joint, tight back, sewn all along, split boards, oversewn, guard.

3. For what kinds of books would you use leather and cloth bindings respectively ?

4. Write short notes on the following leathers : levant morocco, pigskin, roan, niger.

5. What circumstances would guide you in determining whether a book should be (*a*) repaired, (*b*) bound, or (*c*) withdrawn ?

6. Describe the processes through which a book passes in the course of binding.

7. What form of record and instructions would you make for books sent to be bound ?

## RELATIONS OF STAFF AND READERS

There are several factors that tend to vary the standard of relations that exists between a library staff and its readers. In smaller libraries, they tend to become more personal than in a large and busy one, and it is alleged that southerners are less hospitable to each other than the folk of the north.

Allowing something for these variations, it can be said in a general way that the relationships should be strictly of a business nature, and everything that could be construed as gossip should be discouraged. The staff on their part should remember that they are public officials, but not officious public officials, and as such every endeavour should be made to render efficient service in a perfectly courteous and unostentatious way. Rudeness to the public is an inexcusable and unjustifiable offence, and it is in this connexion that some of the essential qualities of a good library assistant come to the surface, such as perfect tact, immeasurable patience, a sympathetic understanding of humanity and a keen sense of humour.

In most disputes the complainant is definitely in the wrong, and although an assistant has the advantage of knowing that this is so from the

beginning, he should never use this as an excuse for bullying a reader, even in the mildest possible way, and he should remember that nobody likes to be make to look a fool publicly.

It is a curious characteristic of human nature that when we are young we love to assume responsibility, but as we get older we develop the habit of passing on difficult problems to someone else. The habits of human nature are hard to overcome, but beginners in library work will save themselves a lot of trouble, and possibly censure, if they will only learn to refer difficult cases to someone in authority for settlement.

Help in the quest for books or in the use of the catalogues should be given freely whenever it is asked for. In a few libraries there is what is known as a "readers' adviser," whose job it is to help readers in these and other matters germane to reading. While this office is not common in England, many libraries have introduced what is called "floor duty," the feature of which is that the staff in turn is detailed to undertake this kind of work. Here again the exercise of much tact is necessary, because some readers definitely resent being approached in any way, sometimes because they do not wish to betray their ignorance, and at others because they have no definite objective, and just like to "browse."

No favours should be conferred, the saving of books for "friends" should be forbidden, and, in short, there should be a perfectly impartial application of the rules and regulations, except in so far as certain discretions are allowed, but only such as would be used for any member of the public who made a similar request with similar reason to support

it. For example, most libraries have a rule to the effect that books may not be exchanged on the day they are taken out, but to apply such a rule with cast-iron rigidity would be contrary to the spirit of the modern library service. Complaints as well as compliments should be equally welcome, and should receive the same acknowledgement and attention.

### *Knowledge Tests*

1. What are the duties of an assistant delegated to floor duty ?

2. What are the commoner forms of disputes that arise with users of a lending library, and how would you seek to avoid them as far as possible ?

3. How would you set about offering guidance to a reader in the use of the catalogue and classification ?

4. There is an impression in the minds of some readers that the best books are kept for the friends of the staff. How would you try to disperse it ?

5. What are the essential qualities of a good library assistant in the matter of his relations with readers ?

### READINGS

As this section covers such a very wide field, it is impracticable to give references at the end of each of the divisions as they have been dealt with, especially as some of the subjects are more or less intertwined in the textbooks. But the under-mentioned books should be studied as far as possible in their appropriate chapters.

Brown, J. D. *Manual of Library Economy*. 4th edition, by W. C. Berwick Sayers. 1931.

Harrod, L. Montague. *Lending Library Methods.* 1933.

Hewitt, Arthur R. *A Summary of Public Library Law.* 1932.

Warner, John. *Reference Library Methods.* 1928.

And the following volumes of the *Library Association Series of Library Manuals* :

Doubleday, W. E., *editor. A Primer of Librarianship.* 1931.

Doubleday, W. E. *A Manual of Library Routine.* 1933.

Sayers, W. C. Berwick. *A Manual of Children's Libraries.* 1932.

# APPENDICES

## APPENDIX I

### ORGANISATIONS HAVING A DIRECT OR AN INDIRECT BEARING ON LIBRARIES

No one can work for a year in a library without hearing of these organisations. Most of them closely concern librarianship in one or other of its aspects. The notes are brief, but they may help the beginner to some more intelligent understanding of what they are and what they do than he might otherwise have.

*Association of Assistant Librarians.*

Founded in 1895 as "The Library Assistants' Association," but now a section of the Library Association, though still controlled by its own Council and voicing its own views in its official journal, *The Library Assistant.* Has done much to better the conditions of work in public and other libraries through its two *Reports on Hours, Salaries, Training, and Conditions of Service in British Municipal Libraries.* Publishes from time to time valuable introductions to various technical subjects. Has organised "foreign" Easter schools and still shares in a summer school at Birmingham. Affords opportunities for visiting different types of libraries, and holds well-supported meetings regularly. Has a valuable professional library.

*Association of Special Libraries and Information Bureaux.*

Generally referred to as ASLIB. Founded in 1924, it exists to examine, foster, and co-ordinate the activities of special libraries and information bureaux, and to act as a clearing house for these libraries. It seeks to develop their usefulness and increase their efficiency by means of conferences held in September, with meetings at other times, to disseminate and make available published information. Does not usually provide information itself, but puts the enquirer into touch with an appropriate special library or body. Has issued a valuable guide to special libraries called *The ASLIB Directory*.

*Carnegie United Kingdom Trust.*

Founded to carry out the desires of the late Andrew Carnegie, who, among many other public benefits, provided during his lifetime money for the building of many public libraries up and down the country, as well as in America and other places. Since his death in 1919, the Trust has played an active part in the building up of a modern library service, urban and county, as well as of the National Central Library, the Library Association, the Regional Library Bureaux, and the University of London School of Librarianship. Not only has it provided grants of money for new schemes and the development of existing ones, for books and other things, but by its insistence on the appointment of trained librarians, it has done much to help raise the status of librarianship, and secure its recognition as a profession requiring definite training. It is not an exaggeration to say that the Trust has been behind every movement in recent years, having as its

object a better, and more nearly national, library service. When the history of English libraries during the twentieth century comes to be written, the names of the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust and of its secretary, Lt.-Col. J. M. Mitchell, will take a premier place. Has issued valuable reports, and its annual report is always an interesting record of library developments during the previous year.

*Joint Standing Committee on Library Co-operation.*

Aims to do for university, college, and similar libraries what the Regional Library Bureaux do for urban and county libraries, by making the contents and resources of such libraries available over as wide an area as possible.

*The Library Association.*

Founded in 1877, and incorporated in 1898 by Royal Charter, "to unite all persons engaged or interested in library work by holding conferences and meetings for the discussion of bibliographical questions and matters affecting libraries." It does a good deal more than this. Acts as an information bureau on library matters generally. Is one of the two examining bodies for diplomas in librarianship, and maintains a register of qualified librarians. The headquarters, at Chaucer House, Malet Place, London, W.C. 1, include a library and a members' room, open daily, providing the essentials and comfort of a professional club. Issues a monthly journal, *The Library Association Record*, and other bibliographical publications. Includes sections for county libraries and for university and research libraries, as well as the Association of Assistant Librarians. Holds an annual conference in Septem-

ber, and monthly meetings through its London and Home Counties and other branches.

*The National Association of Local Government Officers.*

Commonly spoken of as N.A.L.G.O. Founded 1905. Exists to organise the professional, technical, administrative, and clerical employees throughout the municipal service ; to protect their interests and improve their status ; to improve and extend the provision of superannuation allowances ; to provide and maintain educational facilities, to hold examinations and to grant diplomas, etc. Among other things has its own Approved Society, a Benevolent and Orphan Fund, its own Convalescent Home, and Holiday Camps. Has established a scholarship scheme to assist students to prepare for certain professional examinations and degrees or diplomas.

*The National Book Council.*

Generally spoken of as the N.B.C. The most valuable work of the Council, from a librarian's point of view, is the frequent issue of authoritative book lists on specific subjects, compiled and sponsored by organisations concerned with the subjects. *The Reader's Guides*, issued in May and November, are useful in book selection, and the news sheets contain interesting information about books and the book trade.

*The National Central Library.*

Founded in 1916 as the Central Library for Students. In 1930, as the result of recommendations of the Royal Commission on National Museums and Galleries, it was reconstituted as the National Central

Library. The original purpose of the library was to supply books, otherwise unobtainable, to students throughout the country. It is not only a great lending library itself, but also an exchange for lending between libraries of all kinds, both within Great Britain and abroad. There are separate similar libraries for Scotland and Ireland, known respectively as the Scottish Central Library for Students at Dunfermline, and the Irish Central Library for Students at Dublin.

The functions of the library are :

(*a*) To supply on loan to libraries, or in exceptional cases to individuals, books for study which cannot conveniently be obtained in any other way.

(*b*) To supply such books on loan to groups of adult students.

(*c*) To act as an exchange or clearing house of mutual loans of such books between other libraries.

(*d*) To act as a centre of bibliographical information, both for national and international purposes.

(*e*) To facilitate access to books and information about books.

(*f*) To take such other action as may conduce to the above objects.

The library is the recognised source from which the libraries in Great Britain and Ireland (university, special, urban, and county libraries) obtain the scarce and important books which they are unable to supply from their own shelves.

It lends from its own stock non-fiction books, published at not less than eight shillings, on all subjects, excluding only the set textbooks required

for examinations. In addition, it endeavours to obtain from other libraries those books which it is unable to supply from its own shelves. Among the books supplied are (*a*) those needed by the general reader, (*b*) highly specialised or expensive books which the borrowing library would not be justified in buying, even if it could afford to do so, (*c*) scarce and out-of-print books, in some cases books of considerable age, rarity, and value, (*d*) foreign books, of which no copies are available in this country, (*e*) the back volumes of periodicals, and (*f*) photostat copies of manuscripts and rare printed books which cannot be lent.

The library is the clearing house for the lending of non-fiction books between libraries of all types. It has access to over five million volumes in 130 libraries—known as Outlier Libraries—which lend books to other libraries through the agency of the National Central Library. By means of this scheme of co-operation, which has been organised with the financial assistance of the Carnegie Trustees, research workers and other persons doing important work in all parts of Great Britain and Ireland are able to obtain on loan valuable books and periodicals to which they would otherwise not have access, and without which they would often not be able to bring their work to a successful conclusion.

The Library is the centre of the scheme of regional co-operation throughout the country (*q.v.*).

*Regional Library Bureaux.*

As in nations, so in libraries, the value of co-operation is rapidly becoming more realised than it was a few years ago. No longer is a reader's field of choice fixed by the civil boundaries of his town or parish. Within limits, it is true to say that the

libraries of the whole country are at his disposal. Not only do library authorities take a wider view of the functions of libraries by allowing visitors from other towns to use their home library tickets during their stay, but through the National Central Library the way has been paved for a still larger view. To such an extent has this idea found favour that Regional Library Bureaux have been set up in different parts of the country, and before long the whole will be similarly served.

These Bureaux act as reliefs to the National Central Library, and were made possible in the first instance by grants from the Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, though their future maintenance will depend on the subscriptions of the participating urban and county libraries, which have a fixed basis according to population served.

Regional Bureaux are not libraries, as is the National Central Library, but they work from Union Catalogues of the stocks of the libraries included in the scheme. Briefly, the procedure is as follows: (*a*) The reader applies to his local library. (*b*) The library applies to the Regional Bureau. (*c*) The Bureau consults the Union Catalogue and forwards the application to a library in the region containing a copy of the book. If the book is not available in a regional library, the Bureau forwards the application to the National Central Library, which will either supply the book from its own stock, or endeavour to obtain it from an Outlier library or some other Regional Bureau.

The borrowing library—or the borrower—pays the cost of carriage, and the librarian possessing the book reserves the right to decline to lend it if for any reason it is not expedient to do so. As a general rule, such books as fiction, new books in

constant demand, textbooks definitely required for examinations, and books that a library might reasonably be expected to buy for itself, are excluded.

*University of London School of Librarianship.*

At University College, Gower Street, London, W.C. 1. Prepares students for the Diplomas of the Library Association and of the University of London. The curriculum and other details are described in chapter four.

## APPENDIX II

### PROFESSIONAL AND SEMI-PROFESSIONAL PERIODICALS

THE assistant who has any real aspirations in librarianship must take a keen interest in his profession. No library is so perfect that it can afford to live in isolation, and it is of the greatest importance that each of us should know what the other is doing. Assistants should therefore make a habit of reading, not only the professional journals noted below, but publications of other libraries, such as bulletins and annual reports. In the matter of literary reviews, it is quite as important that one should know what are the principal works of the day as those of past ages. As time goes on, every assistant develops his own preferences in the matter of literary reviews, and for that reason we only mention the one or two that are universally used.

*British Broadcasting Corporation's Publications.*

*The Listener, The Radio Times* (both weekly), and the *Programmes of Talks* (quarterly).

The first has good book reviews and the text of the principal talks broadcast during the previous

week. The second should be looked through, because broadcasts of operas, plays, and some talks result in a certain demand for specific works. Similarly, the programme of talks is useful, because it gives advance information of talks to be broadcast, and authoritative bibliographies of works bearing on the course talks. All are invaluable for topical displays.

*Librarian and Book World* (monthly).

Library notes, technical articles, books of the month, etc.

*Library Assistant* (monthly).

The official journal of the Association of Assistant Librarians. Contains announcements of meetings, articles by younger assistant librarians on modern tendencies in librarianship, and other matters germane to the profession.

*Library Association Record* (monthly).

As the official journal of the Association, easily takes a first place in professional literature. Contains technical and bibliographical articles, library notes, urban, county, and learned, announcements and reports of professional meetings, examination announcements and results, changes in the syllabus, etc.

*Library Journal* (fortnightly).

The most widely known American professional journal. Illustrated technical articles, library notes, etc. Perhaps a little advanced for the beginner, but not to be lost sight of by anyone who hopes to develop an intelligent interest in broad librarianship.

*Library Review* (quarterly).

" A magazine on libraries and literature." Not usually concerned with library technique. Has

articles by well-known literary men and librarians, library and literary notes and news, and a classified Booklist.

*Library World* (monthly).

Technical articles on modern librarianship, book reviews, annotated lists of new editions, and most interesting of all, "Letters on Our Affairs."

*Publishers' Circular and Booksellers' Record, and the Publisher and Bookseller* (weekly).

The official organ of the Publishers' Association and Associated Booksellers of Great Britain and Ireland. News about authors, books, and the book trade, and, as far as ascertainable, a complete list of "Books of the week," including new editions, under author's name, title of work and subject, in one alphabet; also lists of books to be published during the ensuing week, with days on which they will appear. Invaluable for tracing borrowers' enquiries and suggestions, and for forestalling public demand.

*Observer* (weekly).

The Sunday paper that is different. Not only has good book reviews, but critical reviews of other cultural things of vital importance in the development of a good librarian, such as music and the drama.

*Times Literary Supplement* (weekly).

The librarian's mainstay in general book selection. Reviews outstanding publications at length, the rest in summary form, under classified heads.

*The Wilson Bulletin* (monthly).

Issued by an American firm specialising in important bibliographical works of reference. Short, bright articles on all aspects of librarianship. Special features for beginners.

## APPENDIX III

### SOME BOOKS TO KNOW

The library assistant should know something of the principal sources of bibliographical information, for no one can work long in a library without having to hunt up particulars about some book or subject. The number of such books is legion, and only long experience can teach a librarian the best source from which to obtain the desired information. There are, however, a few books that everyone should know from the beginning. Some of them, unfortunately, will not be available in very small libraries, but even the assistant in the smallest library should know that such books exist, and should take an early opportunity of seeing them for himself at some large library. The list is purposely brief.

Aldred, Thomas.

Sequel stories, English and American. Second ed., by W. H. Parker ; with foreword, by Hugh Walpole. 1928. Association of Assistant Librarians.

Includes stories in which the same character appears in more than one book ; series forming a continuous narrative of events ; trilogies and

the like. Indicates the order in which such should be read.

AUTHORS TO-DAY AND YESTERDAY.

Edited by Stanley J. Kunitz, and Others. 320 *por.* 1933. New York: H. W. Wilson Co. and its earlier companion,

LIVING AUTHORS: A BOOK OF BIOGRAPHIES.

Edited by "Dilly Tante." 371 *por.* 1931. New York: H. W. Wilson Co.

Invaluable for tracing information about popular twentieth-century authors, especially personal data. Every biography is accompanied by a portrait.

BAKER, ERNEST A., AND PACKHAM, JAMES.

A Guide to the Best Fiction, English and American, including translations from foreign languages. 1932. Routledge.

Arranged in a single alphabet of authors, with very full index of variant names of authors, titles, subjects, historical names and allusions, places, characters, etc.

ENGLISH CATALOGUE OF BOOKS (Annually, cumulated every five years).

Giving in one alphabet, under author and title, the size, price, month of publication, and publisher of books issued in the United Kingdom. Ed. by James D. Stewart.

Includes an analysis of books published in the United Kingdom during the year, and appendices of learned societies, printing clubs, etc., with their publications for the year, and a list of publishers.

HARVEY, *Sir* PAUL.

The Oxford Companion to English Literature. 1932. Oxford : Clarendon Pr.

Aims at explaining allusions and giving essential facts about works in the English language, and their authors. Includes American literature, and other literatures in so far only as they provide common allusion in English. The allusions explained are mostly limited to proper names ; words explained in an ordinary dictionary are as a rule excluded. Includes a limited selection of living writers. There are plots of plays, novels, and poems of classic importance, and the principal characters in English literature are given.

HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

Issues very valuable select bibliographies on historical subjects.

LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, *and Others.*

Books to Read : a classified and annotated catalogue, being a guide for young readers. In three parts : authors and titles of books ; books arranged by subjects (with an author list of fiction) ; alphabetical index to Subjects. 1930.

——Supplement. 1931.

MINTO, JOHN.

Reference Books : a classified and annotated guide to the principal works of reference. Library Association. 1929.

Arranged by Dewey, with a single index of authors, subjects, and other necessary entries.

—— Supplement. 1931.

MUDGE, ISADORE GILBERT.

Guide to Reference Books. American Library Association. 1929.

Arranged by Dewey, with a single index of authors, subjects, and necessary titles.

REFERENCE CATALOGUE OF CURRENT LITERATURE.

Containing the full titles of books now in print and on sale; with the prices at which they may be obtained of all booksellers, and an index giving over a million details concerning books published and for sale. 3 v. 1932.

V. 1 is an author and a title index to every book priced at sixpence or over. The other two volumes consist of the separate catalogues of practically every British publisher, that for each publisher taking its alphabetical place under the name of its firm.

ROBERTSON, J. M.

Courses of Study. Ed. 3. 1932.

Annotated reading lists "to provide private students with lines of guidance in a number of fields of non-professional study."—*Pref.*

SONNENSCHEIN, W. S.

The Best Books: a reader's guide to the choice of the best available books in every department of science, art, and literature, with the dates of the first and last editions, and the price, size, and publisher's name (both English and American) of each book: with complete authors and subjects index. 5 v. 1910–1931.

Standard Books.

An annotated and classified guide to the best books in all departments of literature: with index of subjects and biographical notes of authors. Ed. by C. F. Tweney. 4 v. [1912–1915]. (Nelson and Sons).

Whitaker's Cumulative Book List.

A classified list of publications, giving authors, titles, sub-titles, sizes, publishers, prices, and dates of issue, together with an extended alphabetical list of authors and titles of all books published within the period. Published quarterly, and cumulates with each issue, the July part containing the books published from January to June, the October part those from January to September, and the January one the publications for the whole of the previous year. Books published in between the periods are listed in *The Bookseller* (weekly).

## APPENDIX IV

### PROFESSIONAL LIBRARIES

Assistants studying for the professional examinations should be prepared to buy the principal text-book of their course. Most public libraries contain some sort of a collection of books on library economy, some of them very fine ones indeed. These are generally available for public reference, and students in need of books should make enquiries at their nearest large library. Besides these, the following special libraries exist:

*Association of Assistant Librarians.* Housed at the Carnegie Library, Herne Hill, London, S.E. Contains over 1000 volumes, besides pamphlets. May be borrowed by members through the post. Printed catalogue, price threepence.

*Bibliographical Society.* A library of several hundreds of books on bibliography, available to members of the Society. Housed at the British Academy, Burlington Gardens, London, W. 1.

*Greenwood Collection of Bibliography, Library Economy and Printing.* Housed in the Manchester Reference Library. Contains about 17,000 volumes and pamphlets. Books may be borrowed through the post on the recommendation of a tutor.

*Library Association.* A reference library of about 1500 volumes, besides current periodicals and pamphlets, housed in the Council Room at Chaucer House, Malet Place, London, W.C. 1. Available to members on every weekday.

*National Book Council Library.* A permanent reference library for all interested in books. Embraces the history of books and authorship, bookselling and publishing, book-collecting, bibliography, and the history and economics of the book trade. Housed at 3 Henrietta Street, London, W.C. 2. Books may be borrowed through the post by members and associate members of the Council. Printed catalogue, one shilling. (Two shillings to non-members.)

*University of London School of Librarianship.* A reference library for the use of students at the school. Housed in the Morley Building, at University College, Gower Street, London, W.C. 1.

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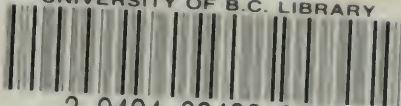
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